EDUCATION

Devoted to the Science, Art, Philosophy and Literature of Education

VOL. XXXV. OCTOBER, 1914 No. 2

The One-Unit Preparation in a Modern Language for Admission to College

BY PROFESSOR ERNST H. MENSEL, SMITH COLLEGE

WHEN, in 1898, the Committee of Twelve presented its final report to the Modern Language Association of America, no provision was made for a one-year course in French or German which might have a place in a well-ordered high school curriculum or be offered for admission to college. The committee in that report does not enter upon any argument regarding the advisability of establishing such a course; it seems to have found nothing in it that would make it appear as deserving recognition as a separate unit. The report contains some references to this matter, direct or indirect; they are few in number and they indicate that the committee had no intention of standing sponsor for a one-year course.

"The elementary course is designed to furnish the minimum of preparation required by a number of colleges in addition to the Latin or Greek of the classical preparatory course."

This minimum of preparation is later shown to demand for its accomplishment a course covering two years, with at least four recitations a week.

"When French is taken up in the last year of the classical preparatory course, it may be possible sometimes to meet the elementary requirement in one year at the rate of five recitations a week. But this will almost never be possible in the case of Ger-

man, and in general the committee do not recommend one-year courses. The attempt to meet the elementary requirement in one year will result usually in a cramming process with neglect of that thorough drill upon the rudiments which is necessary for a good foundation."

While here the possibility is admitted that the amount of work required in elementary French may be done in one year, yet such a case is regarded as a remote possibility, will occur only sometimes, calls for continued work in the ancient classics as a sort of propaedeutic discipline, and for five recitations a week, and it in no manner lessens the amount of required work which must be presented. Moreover, whatever admission is here made, is virtually retracted in the statement under "Suggestions to the Teacher":

"It is well known that a capable boy or girl can be crammed for college examination in any subject in much less time than a proper training in the subject would require. Here, however, we are concerned with the proper training. The college entrance examination is admittedly an imperfect test of attainment in a modern language."

It is, to be sure, stated in the first quotation made above that the answer to the question, "What shall be the minimum content of a modern language course?" has been arrived at by an inquiry after what is the minimum of preparation accepted for entrance by a certain number of colleges; yet the insistence upon "proper training" hints at the real reason for the actual requirements made in the elementary course.

A few years ago, when the framing of a high school course in Spanish came up for consideration, the opportunity was presented to revise the judgment expressed on the one-year course in the report of the Committee of Twelve. But the report adopted by the Modern Language Association of America and outlining this new work, makes no provision for a one-year course; it says, "The elementary course corresponds to the first two years in the secondary schools or to the first year in college"; (Proc. for 1910, in Publications of the Mod. Lang. Assoc. of America, New Ser. Vol. XIX, App. p. XVI).

There could be no expectation that the report of the Committee of Twelve would be the final word in modern language teaching.

Undoubtedly that document has been a strong factor in moulding this feature of our educational system. But neither have its recommendations, even in regard to nomenclature everywhere been accepted, nor has its validity gone unquestioned in more important respects; and this is as it should be if progress is to be made.

For one thing, the view that the "minimum of preparation" consistent with "proper training", can be obtained in not less than two years of study in the secondary school is not universally supported by the practice of the colleges and universities. The universities of California, Illinois, Kansas, Nebraska, Wisconsin, Chicago, Cincinnati, Northwestern University, Brown University, Oberlin College, Mount Holyoke College, Smith College, not to mention others, accept one unit in a modern language for admission, some of them with special conditions, others unconditionally. The University of California Bulletin, Aug., 1914, ftn. p. 49, states, "Subjects 6ab[1], 15a[1], 15b[1] 15c[1] represent the minimum credit in Latin, French, German and Spanish respectively—one year of high school work. Such credit is ordinarily given only upon recommendation, not upon examination"; the implication here seems to be that the university does not care to dignify the one year's work by an examination and that such offering of one unit is perhaps not often made. Northwestern University makes this stipulation: "A single unit of a foreign language will be accepted for entrance credit only when accompanied by at least three units of some other language or two units of each of two others." (Ann. Cat., 1913-14, p. 81). In the University of Wisconsin the practice is the following: "No foreign language course of less than two units will be accepted from students presenting only one foreign language. Students who present not less than three units of one foreign language may receive credit for one unit of a second foreign language." (Cat., 1912-1913, p. 101). In Brown University one unit may be offered for admission in French and German, the catalog of 1913-1914, speaking of "Elementary French (First Year)"; "Elementary French (Second Year)" and "Elementary German (First Year)"; "Elementary German (Second Year)"; but in Latin, Greek and Spanish(!) no less than two years may be offered, the course called "Elementary Spanish" being described (p. 47) as a two-year course.

While some other institutions do not print the condition that

one unit will be accepted only if offered in conjunction with at least three units of other foreign language work, it will be found that commonly such a single unit is presented in connection with not merely three, but sometimes as many as seven units in foreign languages, viz., four units in Latin and three units in French or German plus one unit in German or French, as is the case of candidates for admission to Mount Holyoke or Smith.

Over against this list of prominent institutions accepting one unit in a modern language, I set another list of those that decline to accept less than two units, or the equivalent of them, for admission to college. Here belong Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Columbia, the state universities of Iowa, Indiana, Michigan, Leland Stanford University, New York University, Tufts College, Western Reserve University, Vassar, Wellesley, Dartmouth, to enumerate only some of them. Wellesley and Dartmouth have only just come over into this column, the former doing away with the acceptance of the one unit after 1913, the latter stating in the catalog of 1913-1914, ftn. p. 73, that "after September, 1914, no credit toward admission will be allowed for one year of a modern language." At the University of Indiana the language requirement for admission is two units in Greek or Latin or German or French. The statement (Cat. No. 1913, p. 72) goes on to say: "Less than 2 units in a language will not be accepted for either language credit, or elective credit, unless the same language is continued in college until the student has completed at least the equivalent of 15 college hours in the language counting both high school and college work together."

Among the institutions whose catalogs I have examined there is not one that would have its foreign language requirement met by a single unit in an ancient or modern language; it is plain, however, from the lists given that there is no general consensus of opinion as to the value of the one-year modern language course when it is offered in connection with other language work. While among the New England colleges there has been a change of attitude in recent years on the part of a few institutions, at least two, so far, declining further to accept one unit in a modern language, an action taken probably in consequence of the agitation of the subject in the New England Modern Language Association, there are still a good many influential institutions which for one reason

or another are willing to accept the one unit for admission. It is the object of this paper to inquire into the reasonableness of this attitude and to throw if possible some light on the practical working out of it.

There are to my mind chiefly three considerations that have made for the recognition of the one-year course and its acceptance by the colleges, and not a little weight attaches to each one of them.

1. The college is concerned with the question of the fitness of the applicant for admission to do properly and with advantage to himself the work that it offers. This fitness it believes can be acquired in a four-year high school course, consisting usually of some subjects definitely laid down as to content and amount of time needed for their pursuit, and of others which are elective. These latter are more or less numerous, and to them belongs the one year of a foreign language. The contention of those who advocate the acceptance of such a course is that if the subject is well taught and the pupil's attainments in it are commendable, or such as may reasonably be expected of an average scholar, proper credit should be given for it as well as for a one-year course in any other subject like science or history. The pupil's time has been profitably employed; the study may not have been of very great cultural or practical value, still, his mind has received a certain amount of discipline; he is far from being a master of the subject, but as far as circumstances permitted, he has made commendable progress in it; the information which he has acquired may be of some benefit to him, he will at least be able to recognize forms in the foreign language and pronounce such words in it as he may come across in his reading or further studies in the arts and sciences. For these reasons he should receive that equitable treatment which the acceptance of this short course by the college whose walls he seeks to enter would mean. This argument is rather in line with the insistance on the recognition of vocational subjects for entrance to college, and it is a fact, though perhaps only a coincidence, that a number of institutions which accept one year of a modern language accept also three or four units in commercial and vocational studies, e. g., the University of Kansas and the University of Wisconsin. On the other hand, there are also colleges accepting vocational subjects, which, however, decline to give entrance credit for one year in a modern language. The minimum

requirement in the foreign language group at the State University of Iowa "for admission to all regular collegiate courses, including all courses in liberal arts and engineering, is two years of some language," and the values attached to Greek, Latin, French, Spanish, German, cover in every case from two to four units, yet this same university also accepts up to four units in commercial and industrial subjects. These illustrations might be multiplied.

2. It may furthermore be urged that the acceptance of the one unit in a modern language makes for greater flexibility in the scheme of entrance requirements. In late years, there has become noticeable a gradual drawing together of the various institutions in regard to a standardization of and agreement upon matters of entrance requirements. Through the activity of larger bodies in which the question has been thoroughly gone into, a certain uniformity has been reached which has helped to mitigate the rather severely rigid demands made in some college catalogs. It has become possible to offer alternatives in the place of certain subjects formerly definitely required. If instead of a unit in some science, or a second unit in science, the candidate for admission may offer a unit in a foreign language his path to college may be smoothed thereby. The latter subject may be one for which he has a natural aptitude or the pursuit of it, in view of his previous linguistic studies, may be easier and he may feel that the disproportionately large amount of time exacted in some other subject which he must take during the last year of his secondary school course should make him select a study which, by its less heavy time demands, would help to even things up. Thus, the candidate for admission to college having chosen this one-year course in a modern language, because of his predilection for it or for some other perfectly intelligent reason, and having made up his mind, toward the end of his last year in the secondary school to go to college, has one more option as he tries to adjust himself to entrance requirements, and his transition from the lower to the higher school is thereby made less difficult and more natural.

3. What originally may have had not a little to do with the acceptance of the one-year course on the part of the colleges is the fact that in the earlier days there were not a few secondary schools for which it was very much easier to furnish adequate instruction in the languages than in the sciences. The proper teaching of the

latter required a material outfit in the way of laboratories and equipment which it was not always possible to provide, while it was no particular hardship to meet the demands in the languages since the longer courses necessarily included the first year's work. Thus it could only be to the advantage of the college to get a unit in a subject that might be comparatively well done, as modern language instruction went, rather than insist that this unit must be offered in one which the particular secondary school could really only inadequately teach. That there were such schools in which linguistic studies could be pursued in a manner not at all unacceptable, while the instruction in the sciences left something to be desired, cannot be denied; some of this type may still be left. Moreover, it may not have seemed fair to decline to accept the first year's work in a subject while perfectly willing to receive two or more units in it. And the argument on this particular point goes sometimes on to say, weak though it is, that the student who wants to come to college is really not to blame for the inability of the high school, the only one that he may be able to attend, to provide proper facilities, and he should not be penalized, but be allowed to come in with what he can offer as long as this is of sufficient amount, includes certain basic studies, and is satisfactorily done.

In view of the considerations that have been enumerated, there is without question something to be said in favor of the acceptance of the one-year course in a foreign language. But it must not be forgotten that in the process of education, whether in the secondary school or in the college, the mechanical application of a principle of equalization of all subjects as to time allotment, or reasons of expediency, like greater flexibility of entrance scheme, and consideration for what the means and equipment of a school may afford in the way of instruction, should not be allowed to be determining factors. Over against the reasons adduced in favor of one-year courses in foreign languages can be set others which in my opinion have greater weight and would make it advisable to adhere to the view laid down in the report of the Committee of Twelve, to the effect that the elementary course in a modern language should embrace two years of work in a secondary school.

1. Of foreign language study, and therefore of modern language study, it may be said with peculiar propriety that it is a

cumulative process, and this is true especially of the earlier years of it; the forward step is always conditioned on what has preceded. A pupil may study ancient history up to the time of Charlemagne, or mediaeval history from 814 to the present time, or English history with due reference to social and political development, or American history and civil government; he may take these courses successively, he may also take one of them without the others, and still get satisfactory results. He may study one of the sciences and get acquaintance with a body of facts that is exceedingly valuable, even if in his further education he does not come back to this particular science which he studied in the last year of his secondary school course. But in the case of foreign language study it is not possible to divide the material with which it deals in the first years into several sections that may be taken independently of each other. The pupil cannot say, "I have looked into this compartment, I will now look into that"; there can be no gap in this discipline.

2. Foreign language study, therefore modern language study, is a slow process; it must be pursued for a long time if satisfactory results are to be reached. There are, to be sure, certain general principles that might be learned in a shorter time, but there is also a mass of details exhibiting these principles, that must be mastered before a student can really get a working knowledge of the subject. We practically acknowledge the truth of this assertion in regard to one of the foreign languages; hardly anyone has dared as yet to suggest that Latin should be studied for less than two years or that it should be accepted for entrance to college with a value of less than two units. In those institutions which will theoretically accept one year's work in Latin, it probably happens only rarely that such an amount is actually offered for admission.

With the gradual modifications that the methods of teaching modern foreign languages have been undergoing during the last twenty years, the result has been a greater emphasis upon the claim that they should be treated not as dead but as living, that proper instruction in them has to take due account of their being the actual means of intercourse between individuals and nations at the present time, and that a complete mastery of them calls also for a speaking knowledge, in order to acquire which the stu-

dent should, from the very beginning, have some opportunity given him for using the foreign language in the classroom. The added attention that must thus be given to the phonetic side of the subject, the painstaking and unremitting drill, not merely in translating from the foreign language into the mother tongue (though this discipline is no longer so largely employed as formerly) or in composition work, but in the living use of the foreign idiom, while making the process of acquisition more real and interesting and helping materially in developing the right feeling for the language, do not accelerate progress in it, they are rather an additional reason why the elementary course should embrace at least two years. Any student who in the secondary school takes up the study of a modern language should enter upon it with the understanding that he is to devote not less than two years to it; he should be made to appreciate at the outset the fact that proper disciplinary, cultural, and practical results cannot be attained unless he is willing to make such a time allotment.

3. Most colleges require 14½-15 units for entrance. It happens not infrequently that the one year's work in modern language is added as a sort of pendant to the other 13¼ or 14 units in order to fill up the required number of hours; it thus has merely the function of a stop gap. Instead of being looked upon as a subject well deserving serious study because of its intrinsic value, it is taken by pupils in the secondary schools for the purpose of making up hours; and the college sanctions this practice and puts upon it the stamp of its approval by accepting it for entrance. From a pedagogical point of view it would be better to endeavor to deepen the pupil's knowledge of some subject in which he has already made commendable progress rather than take up a new subject in which he can make comparatively little advance in the course of one year, and which he takes up only to drop it again after it has served its purpose of getting him across the threshold of the college.

The situation would not be so bad if the college would require him to continue this foreign language in which he has offered only one unit after entrance until he has carried the study of it to a certain point or has reached a certain proficiency in it. However, this is not by any means always the case. The practice of the University of Indiana is commendable; it declines to accept less

than two units in any language unless it is continued in college until the student has completed at least the equivalent of fifteen college hours in this language, counting both high school and college work together. This would mean on the basis of the usual valuation, two years of high school work being equal to one year of college work, that the subject should be pursued for at least two semesters, with five recitations per week, in college if only one unit in it had been offered for admission. But this practice is not a general one; on the contrary, it happens that colleges operating the certificate plan require that the more important subjects in which the student is certified should be continued in the freshman year (this provision being a sort of check on the secondary school), Latin with its four units, French or German with perhaps three, mathematics with two and a half or three, while the modern language in which the student offers only one unit, and is therefore least prepared, may be dropped at entrance. If continuation should be insisted upon anywhere, it is needed in the case of this one unit. As it is, if I may cite a definite illustration, of some 500 entering students in one of our large colleges 110-140 (the numbers vary in different years) present one unit in French or German; of these about 30-40% continue it at some time during their college course, most of them in the first year, some in the second or third. The class will thus be made up of freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and perhaps seniors; that this unequal yoking together is the most advantageous thing for all concerned cannot be claimed.

4. In passing I will mention a reason of expediency which works against the acceptance of one unit in a modern language for admission to college. In our own institution we have somewhat over one hundred candidates for admission who present one year's work in French or German. We must therefore arrange a special course for students with this amount of preparation and consequently carry four sets of courses for entering students, to connect with one, two, three, or four years of preparation in the lower school, besides providing a course for beginners. We do this for the first three groups, there being only a very few who came in with four years of French or German; but it can easily be seen that an endeavor to carry this difference through the four years of the college course would mean too minute differentiation

and might result in not a few complications. Somewhere in the course we come to a point where a break must be made, when elements that are not quite alike in preparation must be thrown together; but there is a lack of homogeneity which puts some students at a disadvantage.

At the suggestion of the New England Modern Language Association a conference was held in October, 1910, at Tufts College, at which certain recommendations were discussed that had been proposed by a committee of this association on college entrance requirements and a similar committee of the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools. The conference was composed of the members of these committees and of representatives of the modern language departments of the New England colleges appointed by their presidents. Among the recommendations finally adopted were also two dealing with the question discussed in this article, one reading: "That the requirements for elementary French and German be a systematic course of four or five periods per week extending over at least two school years, and that the course for each year be in no case less than the Carnegie Foundation's unit, or 120 full sixty-minute hours."

The other recommendation was the following:

"That beginning with 1912-13 the colleges give no credit on certificate for any modern language course shorter than the two-year elementary requirement, except that candidates offering the full classical requirement of four years of Latin and three years of Greek may receive credit for first-year French or German."

The chief reason advanced for the exception noted in the second recommendation was the desire to afford classical students the opportunity of at least beginning a modern language as early as possible, the study of which would otherwise have to be deferred entirely until after entrance to college; but there was no unanimity in regard to this matter. On the whole, the conference went on record as endorsing the position of the Committee of Twelve. The view which this committee expressed in its report sixteen years ago, as to what the minimum course in French and German should be for admission to college, or for all that, under any condition, is still tenable. Something may be said for the one unit on the ground of equality, viz., that substantial work for one year should have the same valuation put upon it no matter what the subject,

on the grounds that the acceptance of the one unit makes far greater flexibility of entrance requirements, and that it is an appreciation of honest work on the part of smaller schools that are unable to equip laboratories. Yet, the reasons that can be adduced in support of our continued belief that insistence upon a minimum course of two years is good pedagogy, are to my mind the weightier ones; the practical difficulty connected with an attempt to make progress after entrance to college natural and most successful by providing courses which will connect directly with the student's stage of preparation at entrance; the necessity of carrying work in the foreign language without interruption for at least two years because of the cumulative character of this kind of work and the slowness of acquisition in it, in view of which one year's work if taken for the simple reason of making up the number of units necessary to open the gates of the college, without thought of continuing the subject, would be of comparatively little value. Quite in line with this is the action of some colleges that refuse to give credit to any student who, beginning a modern language in college, does not carry the study of it through at least two semesters.

As long as universities and colleges are willing to accept a one-year course, the schools seem perfectly justified in regarding it as entirely proper to give such a course, though they ought not to look upon it as satisfying the "elementary requirement." But if for one reason or another the one-year course is allowed to continue its existence, it should be granted a longer lease of life only on the condition that it be continued after the student's entrance to college until a certain degree of proficiency is reached.

David Starr Jordan and His Message of Peace

By Henry Meade Bland, San Jose, California.

THERE was once a young man scarce twenty years old who presented himself before a great Harvard teacher to begin the study of science. The teacher gave the student a fish with the direction to observe and to report the most important feature of the specimen. The boy went to work, and in a short time made a report, but the master shook his head. Again the boy studied, this time more carefully; and again with confidence described what he saw. But the master once more sent him back. This time the student grimly settled down to his task, resolved to account for the ultimate characteristic of his fish. He counted the very scales; and, after hours of thought, returned to the master only to receive the same ominous headshake. Then he ceased to search for minor and obscure points, and centered his attention on general characteristics. And at last he decided to make a final report on a new point dawning upon his vision. It was the fish's exquisite and beautiful symmetry. And the master smiled approval.

This young man was David Starr Jordan, college president, scientist, and apostle of world peace. The teacher was Louis Agassiz.

It was a long way from this first science lesson to the mature learning and wisdom of the college chancellor and messenger of peace. But in that first lesson was begun the foundation of scientific knowledge which has placed Doctor Jordan among the most effective workers in the modern warfare against war.

Dr. Jordan's rise to position in science and college life was rapid; and always the two lines were carried parallel. He became a doctor of medicine; taught the various sciences in different colleges in which from time to time he held positions, and thus broadened himself in a knowledge of the animate world. He became a college president; then a lecturer in marine botany

at Penikese Island, Agassiz' famous school. And all this time his studies were relentlessly pursued; and he saw deeper and deeper into the meaning of life.

His scope of work was enlarged in 1877 when he became an assistant to the United States Fish Commission, with which he was connected for fourteen years. Then he was elected in 1885 to the presidency of the University of Indiana; and in 1891 Senator Leland Stanford chose him to head the new Leland Stanford Junior University in California.

With the absorbing duties of this great school, he did not lose sight of his scientific investigations. He learned the significant bearing of science upon modern life, and plunged deeper into his chosen field. He served as head of the California Academy of Sciences for six years, was in charge of the United States Fur Seal and Salmon investigations, and has been international commissioner of fisheries since 1908. This general survey of his field of work does not convey any adequate idea of his minor duties—of his numerous lecture appoinments, college addresses, of travels to remote parts of the globe for the study of fauna and flora of the sea, or of the multitude of pamphlets, books, newspaper and magazine articles he has produced.

It was in 1910 that Dr. Jordan was made chief director of the World's Peace Foundation established by the late Edwin Ginn of Boston, with a bequest of one million dollars. He used his great prestige as a lecturer to open the work, and every available avenue in periodical and magazine was utilized to spread the gospel of "Peace on Earth"; yet in the midst of this tremendous effort to spread the propaganda he remained the head of the university and in fact did not retire to occupy the office of chancellor of the university until the spring of 1913.

To understand more clearly Dr. Jordan's relation to the peace movement, it is necessary to go into an account of his leadership at Stanford University.

The administration of the school at Palo Alto since its inception, has stood for two principles; first, purity of living; second, effectiveness of work. The president was led into his well known crusade against student vice by his close touch with modern science, and by his knowledge of its relation to the elimination of disease. His keen habit of student observation told him that, in

general, failure in classes came from dissipation and the inroads of disease—disease that in many cases grew out of dissipation. But he was badly hampered in his attack upon the problem at hand. A part of the income for the university itself was from the sale of wine. How could he demand the abstinence necessary to successful scholarship while he was a tacit party to this business? Again the suburban towns (except Palo Alto) flaunted dens of vice in the very face of the Doctor when he attempted to uplift the standard of student living. It was necessary for him to influence a state legislature, itself all too susceptible to the evil influences he was fighting, to enact such legislation as would exile legalized vice at least a reasonable distance from the university. Time-honored drinking customs from older colleges developed in the secret societies of the campus and these clubs were not a few times sympathized with by faculty members of convivial habits.

It is true that the doctor gave these members of his teaching corps short shrift when the evidence was against them; and this gradual reorganization of the faculty at last made it possible to begin the positive work of redemption. He waited patiently for the occasion to begin open battle. At last it arrived. A student staggering home drunk from a Menlo Park orgy entered the house he thought was his home, and was slain by the owner who thought him a burglar. This was the occasion. Dr. Jordan's strong hand was immediately felt. The edict from the Board of Trustees immediately went forth banishing all drinking of intoxicants from the university.

The student body was immediately split into two divisions by the decision, but again prompt expulsions of offending students by Dr. Jordan's faculty committees halted the outbreak, for the great majority of the serious minded lined themselves on the Doctor's side, and quiet was restored. The battle, however, did not end till it was fought out in the Alumni Association, where by vote an unsuccessful attempt was made to censure the president.

It was widely predicted that all this boded the downfall of Dr. Jordan. Even teachers in schools of high standing outside of Stanford, prejudiced by the false reports that were everywhere sent flying by the enemies of the president, said the Doctor was getting senile, and they gravely shook their heads.

The California legislature, however, when the time came, did its

duty, and stopped the selling of alcoholics within a reasonable radius of the university. Evil influences on the campus subsided; and now, after a semi-decade, the Doctor has quietly handed over the lead to his successor.

Dr. Jordan's crusade against war dates to his beginning of the study of science which gradually broadened to a study of human evolution. He discovered that war between human races was only another form of the cruel struggle for existence which prevails among lower animate races. This led him into an investigation of the effects in certain portions of Europe of the continued depletion of citizens by death in war. He found in the city of Aosta in Italy, where conditions were extreme, that the able-bodied had for so many decades been conscripted into the army, leaving the crippled and diseased male at home to propagate the family, that this place had become a city of weaklings. Conditions verged on the revolting. The mother of a family often saw that only those of her boys who were diseased were left to her by the recruiting agents. Hence, to save her son, she many times ignorantly encouraged secret contamination. To have the goiter, the prevailing disease, came to be looked upon as a badge of honor, because the youth so affected escaped conscription. Dr. Jordan was filled with horror at this indirect effect of war upon the people.

When the Spanish-American war closed he saw tendencies of the same, or of worse nature, threatening American civilization. The young man who went to the Philippines in 1898 came home in too many cases tainted with the venereal disease contracted by contact with the uncleanly. The Doctor's crusade was begun. An indication of it is seen in his lecture "The Strength of Being Clean", "To be clean is to be strong" he reiterates again and again. There is no doubt that Dr. Jordan's observation, that in the Philippine war the exposure of the American soldier to diseases of all kinds, aroused him to the all-important bearing of peace upon the forward march of the nation.

But he observed further, that in actual war it was the best of mankind who perished. The death of the opposing leaders, of the generals and of the captains was the object to be attained by either side; and in the barbarous warfare in semi-civilized nations, the officers, always the best and strongest among the men, were at once put to death so as to permanently weaken the enemy. After one battle in the Mexican revolution, all officers

taken by the rebels were executed to prevent their ever entering the ranks again; while the common soldier with little intellectuality, was allowed to survive and asked to join the victorious army. It will doubtless take Mexico centuries to reproduce among her own people the leaders lost in this fierce struggle. In the Spanish-American war Dr. Jordan saw the flower of the people not only ruined by wounds and taken by death, but poisoned by exposure to insidious malaria and fevers and by venereal infections. This is the weight of the argument.

As the "Apostle of Peace", President Jordan is strongly equipped to do the work of evangelization. He brings a mind to the problem habituated to constant and careful thought—a mind so accurate in its workings that before it the most difficult life-problems give way to solution. Life-time habits of order and despatch are brought into requisition. The presidential office at Stanford University under his regime was a place where an amazing amount of work was accomplished—sometimes a dozen typists and amanuenses were required to copy extracts, reduce pamphlets to outlines, transcribe notes, take dictations, copy finished addresses, and carry on the general routine, as well as to proof-read and prepare books for print. With this organization and power to systematize and arrange, the work goes on. The press and the lecture-platform have been the chief mediums for the dissemination of that information with reference to the effect of war upon civilization which the Doctor was determined should get into the minds of American readers, and with inspired persistence he has laid his case before the American people.

The intention of the crusade is to be well noted, and it resolves itself to a simple formula which is this: the energy of the nation which is expanded in the maintenance of armies and navies is to revert to the people to develop national wealth—art, education, literature, and science—to develop great industrial and commercial enterprises and to thus ameliorate the physical struggle for living, lifting this struggle to a higher plane. Nations are to be shown that they cannot afford to go to war.

Instead of rifles and gattlings we are to have more and better roads, parks and schools; instead of armies with the equipments of war, there are to be happy armies in the harmless pursuits of peace; instead of forts and battleships we are to have canals and railroads, art institutes, and universities.

Physical Training in the Normal School

By Henry S. Curtis, Olivet, Michigan.

THERE is no question but that the people thirty or more years of age in this country who are not working with their hands are getting far too little exercise. This is true of both sexes, but the need is more insistent in the case of the women than the men, because women have the greater need of physical development, and because they are not at present nearly so well developed, and they are not getting much exercise from their daily work. The games and physical exercises that have thus far prevailed in the schools have not been fitted for later life. We stop playing baseball by the time we are twenty-five, and football even earlier. Women are scarcely playing at all. The reasons for this condition are plain. We have not taught the children during their school days physical exercises suitable for use after school days were over. Yet in all the other school activities this has been the basis of selection. We do not teach arithmetic or geography primarily because we think that these subjects give a valuable training to children, but because we believe the adult will need to use them. I see no reason why the selection of physical activities should be on a different basis. The obvious need is that the student should acquire during his period of training an enthusiasm for some form of sport or exercise, so that he will continue this after school days are over. I do not think that we can consider any person as educated who has not acquired some such enthusiasm.

Gymnastics.

In Germany gymnastics prove a practical form of physical training. They are begun early and carried on late into life. The conditions in Germany are, however, different from what they are here. There is a gymnasium and a turnverine in nearly every town and village. The people have practised gymnastics from early childhood until they have formed a habit of taking

their exercise in that way. Gymnastics seem to be really sport for the German people. Then too, there seems to be a sense of impending war and that everyone must be prepared. This has made of gymnastic practice an expression of patriotism, so it is more or less independent of any natural interest in the movements themselves. The same conditions do not prevail in this country. The young man or woman who has taken his training in the gymnasium of a high school or the college seldom finds himself in touch with a gymnasium afterwards. Almost the only one available in most cities is the gymnasium of the Young Men's or Young Women's Christian Associations. Probably not more than one per cent of college students continue their gymnastics after their college days are over. Many of us have attempted to keep up work with Indian clubs or dumb-bells or pulley-weights, but the well nigh universal experience is that these exercises soon became a bore and have to be continued by a constant effort of the will if they *are* continued. But even if we do keep them up for a considerable time, we soon realize that they are not satisfying our needs. We require fresh air and recreation as much as exercise, and mere motions within doors do not fill the bill. Under existing conditions, it seems clear that we cannot give our students gymnastics in the normal schools or colleges and expect that these are going to meet their need of exercise in later years. It is possible that by creating a greater enthusiasm for gymnastics, the enthusiasm would call into being a system of public gymnasiums in all of our cities. This is probably true, but it is believed that gymnastics are an essentially military form of exercise, that all forms from the Greek down have been created and maintained for the purpose of military training, that we are essentially an unmilitary people, and the American spirit will not be fashioned to the military ideal or to this type of training.

Physical Exercise.

Gymnastics stand for "physical exercise", but we do not have mental exercise or moral exercise. Why should we have physical exercise? The name seems to suggest a conscious system of movements for the sake of training, but the processes of growth are never conscious. In the past of the race physical development has

always been a by-product of work or play, just as mental growth has come from wrestling with life's problems and moral growth from right living. In actual fact the conscious mind does not understand the mechanism of the muscles. It does not know which strings to pull in order to secure a certain muscular movement. These movements are ordinarily controlled by the lower centers, and whenever we do a movement consciously, there is a certain amount of interference, and we make the movement awkwardly. We also do it at vastly greater mental expenditure. We can walk for miles and feel no fatigue, but, if we have to direct our steps consciously in walking over a trestle or avoiding mud, we are soon exhausted. If I put up a big dumb bell, I shall use the motor center of my arm and the rest of my brain will be largely inactive, but if instead I am playing a game of tennis I shall use not only my arm center, but my whole brain and may draft in the other centers to reinforce the arm center. Thus when I am interested, I am not so easily exhausted, and the muscle gains an endurance that it cannot gain from an uninteresting motion. The knotted and bunched muscles of the gymnast stand for physical strength, but they do not stand for beauty, grace, or endurance. They are more unsuited to woman than to man, but they are essentially unsuited to modern life, where the physical work is already or is soon to be done by steam or electricity, and physical strength is less and less required in our daily work, while endurance and the vital energy which is its outward manifestation is no less necessary now than formerly. What I am saying must not be interpreted as in any way opposed to corrective or medical gymnastics, or to very much that is done in the gymnasium, but is really play or dancing. But it seems evident to me that we should not have physical exercise any more than we should mental exercise; that certain activities should be required in the same way as arithmetic or geography are required, and that all physical training should be a by-product of these activities as it always has been in racial history. We should select such activities for the normal schools as will be carried from the school into life, so as to meet the need of exercise and fresh air of later years as well as the years of training. In promoting exercise of this kind for the normal students, we shall also provide the children with the same exercises.

Games for Little Children.

The games of little children do not have the same value as games for older children for the simple reason that they are soon outgrown and left behind. They will be used more or less by adults in playing with their own children, but will not in themselves meet the needs of the adult world.

Baseball and Football.

Every normal man should learn to play baseball and football as a part of his training, because these games are such a large element in American life, and because this knowledge will add greatly to his prestige in the school, but baseball and football can never meet the needs of adult Americans for exercise and recreation, because they require too much space to be practical for the great mass of city dwellers, and because they are too strenuous for later years. There are very few amateur players of either game who are more than twenty-five years of age.

Basketball.

Exactly the same objection can be made to basketball. It is not played after school days are over. There is no likelihood that it will be, as it is even more strenuous than football.

Hockey.

Hockey is an excellent game for normal students, but it is not adapted to school yards and it is not played after school days are over.

Tennis.

Tennis is a game that is carried from the school into life very generally. There are probably more adult women playing tennis than any other game. It can be begun at ten or eleven and played with pleasure till the person is sixty or more years of age, though we do not see many women of that age playing. Tennis has its decided limitations, as it takes a large amount of ground which is expensive to secure in the city, and which requires a

further large expense to prepare it for the game. The rackets and balls also add to the cost, so that we can not think that the majority of our city people will ever play tennis regularly. Most of the adults also will have to take their exercise in the evening, and tennis cannot well be played at that time. However, it is admirably adapted to the farm, as there is there plenty of room and all the implements necessary to prepare the court cheaply. There is no reason why the farmer and his wife should not play every evening during a large part of the year. It would doubtless be a great break with farm traditions, but I know of few things that would do more for country life. Tennis has its limitations, but it is practical for so large a number that it ought to be one of the required normal subjects.

Golf.

Golf is a game for adults, but all the limitations of tennis are still more marked in golf. It requires a very large ground, an expensive equipment; it takes a long time to play a game, and it cannot be played in the evening. This makes it an impossible game for the masses. However, it is so good a game for adults that it would be well to make it an elective in the normal school if the grounds can be secured.

Croquet.

Croquet is one of the commonest outdoor games for adults. It can be started in almost any neighborhood. It is an especially good game for the aged or those whose regular work is so strenuous that exercise is not required *per se*. It would be a good game for women students during their period of monthly disability, and they could get during this time quite as much practice as they would need.

Bowles.

The bowling green which is common in Scotland and parts of England is coming in in this country. Bowling is practised mostly by men so far as I have observed, yet it seems to be peculiarly well fitted for women, as it is a mild and ladylike game

in the open air. It is more vigorous than croquet, and gives abundant opportunity for conversation during the game. Much the same objections that apply to tennis, however, may be urged against it, as it can never reach the masses of the people. I believe, however, that every normal school would be wise to put in a bowling green if it has the ground on which it can grow the perfect turf that is required.

Swimming.

Swimming is a human accomplishment, which is very useful in recreation and which may be the means of saving the life of the person or of someone else. As teachers may have to take care of children where the danger of drowning is a real one, and as it is always a valuable accomplishment which gives dignity in the eyes of the child, all normal students should be required to learn to swim wherever it is possible. Swimming is a form of exercise that is apt to be continued if it is once learned. There are a number of colleges and universities that now require all their academic students to learn to swim, and there is surely more reason for making swimming compulsory in the normal school than there is for making it compulsory anywhere else. Many of our high schools and not a few of our elementary schools, have recently put in swimming pools. The pupils in the council schools of London are taught to swim by their regular teachers. No student is allowed to graduate from the high school in Boston who has not learned, and a systematic effort is being made in Philadelphia and Denver to teach all the boys. Swimming is becoming a more common accomplishment and the lack of it more of a deficiency. The inability to swim will often greatly restrict the activities and enjoyments of a summer vacation.

Skating.

Skating is also a common accomplishment well suited for adults as well as children. Most normal schools will not have the natural pond in the vicinity for skating, but it is not difficult to flood a ground for this purpose. Every teacher should have skating as a part of her course whenever conditions make it possible. If

the teacher expects the children to care for her world of books, she should herself be accomplished in the arts of childhood. We have too few winter sports and skating is one that should not be neglected. It is also one of the most wholesome forms of social intercourse between the sexes.

Curling.

Curling on the ice is a popular game in Scotland which has been systematically introduced into Germany during the last few years. In the northern part of this country it is a practical winter game for men. There are already teams in many of our larger cities. It is a good winter sport for the normal if the ice is available.

Volley Ball.

Volley ball, I believe, meets all the requirements of exercise and recreation for adults perhaps better than any other game. It is a new game, yet it is almost the only one that is being played by the business men in the Y. M. C. A.'s. It requires only a small space and a very inexpensive equipment. It is equally well adapted to the play of the women and the men of the North and the South, of the summer and winter, of the city and the country. It is almost the only game that we have that may also serve the purpose of corrective gymnastics. Volley ball should be required of all students in the normal school.

Indoor Baseball.

Much the same things can be said of indoor baseball and its variation, long ball, as had been said of volley ball. It is really adapted to the play of adults and all adults. There is no valid reason why seventy-five per cent of the entire population over ten years old should not play these games, and it is one of the serious needs of the time, that our people should have some such games that increasing leisure may not mean increasing dissipation.

Walking.

In Germany they have a national organization of walkers and there is a local organization in nearly every city. The school children often go off on a two days' walk, and not infrequently for a week or more. On these trips they visit the places of historic or literary interest in the neighborhood, become acquainted with the products and the people. They learn to love nature and the Fatherland. Walking is one of the best forms of exercise for adults, but we Americans do not seem to regard it either as exercise or recreation. It is too slow for our tastes. If we have three or four blocks to go in the city we take a street car, and if we have to go into the country or the mountains, we take an auto or carriage. Nevertheless, walking is the ideal way of travel. It is the easiest way to come to know a country and its people and to form a love for nature. A walking trip of two or three hundred miles is one of the best vacations that one can take. Of course it depends a good deal upon the locality, but there are very few places where there is nothing of interest. It is a good thing to have an interurban trolley or a railroad, so that one can skip the uninteresting places. Students should be taken on trips of ten or fifteen miles occasionally, until they appreciate the possibilities of such outings and know what can be learned from them.

Camping.

Every normal school should have a camp, if it is at all possible, and every student should be supposed to spend a week or more there, making botanical and other nature study collections, practicing cooking and story telling and camping arts. There is no other place where people get quite so near together as where they sit around the camp fire at night. This would enable the men to get some practical experience in scouting activities, and the women to practice the arts of the camp fire girls. It is a form of vacation that should be encouraged, for the summer stay at an expensive hotel has little to recommend it, and, if one has once had the experience of camping out, it is very likely to be repeated. The teacher is not merely a teacher of a school, but a member of the community and she ought to be able to organize camping

parties among her acquaintances. If she can take her girls off to spend Saturday and Sunday occasionally, this may well establish a much more intimate personal relation that will hold through the remainder of her teaching, and it will at the same time give these young people an experience that will quicken the imagination and help them to appreciate many experiences that otherwise would have been meaningless.

Dancing.

Dancing is the one form of physical exercise that is ordinarily engaged in by mature women. There is much sentiment against it, some of which is well founded. Unsupervised and promiscuous dancing in saloon or hotel dance halls is certainly dangerous morally. However, the best antidote that we have for this form of dancing is folk dancing. This can be done only to a limited degree, but folk dancing is worth while in and of itself. It is a form of exercise that gives grace, physical training, and recreation at the same time. It can be done indoors in winter and out of doors in summer. It will be continued after school days are over. Its advantages are so many that it should be a part of the course in all normal schools.

OPTIMISM

My eyes fade, old through grief, not years;
My heart wastes, worn of toil and tears:
But, though I unrewarded die,
Life still itself must justify!

—Stokely S. Fisher.

DR. WILLIAM B. ASPINWALL

Principal of the State Normal School at Worcester, Mass., the founder of its annual conferences, which are doing so much to promote the movement for the betterment of the rural schools of Massachusetts.

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, AT WORCESTER, MASS.

Which is attracting educators of national reputation to its annual conferences on "Country Life Problems."

Solving Country Life Problems in Massachusetts

By J. Mace Andress, State Normal School, Worcester, Mass.

THE early history of Massachusetts is a record of the struggles and achievements of rural communities. The livelihood of the early colonists was won largely from the tilling of the soil. But it was not long before their energies were turned in other directions, for the rocky hillsides did not always prove attractive to the would-be agriculturalist, while there were many natural opportunities offered for fishing, ship-building, and manufacturing. This tendency was furthered by immigration from Europe. At an early day skilled artisans driven from foreign shores by political and religious persecution, settled on Massachusetts soil and laid the foundation for her industrial and commercial prosperity.

Within the last decade Massachusetts awoke in grave alarm to find decay had gone along with industrial progress. Massachusetts cities had progressed while the country was gradually retrograding. Farms were being abandoned, rural churches were falling into decay and the native food supply was becoming more and more scarce and expensive. From 1790 to 1905 the population living in communities having 8000 inhabitants or less had decreased from 95.16% of the population to 22.26%. From 1900-1910 the increase in the population in the larger cities was enormous in comparison with the growth in the country. The population in the whole state increased 20%. In cities having a population between 25,000 and 100,000 there was a gain of 30.5%. In the rural districts, embracing all communities under 2,500 inhabitants, the gain was only 2.2%. The country increase in population was about 1-9 of the rate of the state as a whole. As the U. S. census report does not specify how many of these people were living on farms it is difficult to say whether the farming class is decreasing or not. The large number of

abandoned farms until recently found in different parts of the Commonwealth would suggest, however, that there has been an actual decline in the agricultural class. Such figures along with the soaring of the cost of living make clear a grave economic problem. The fundamental prosperity and welfare of any people depend upon the well-being of the country. Many suggestions have been made with reference to restoring the country to its one time vigor and influence. Scientific agriculture, good roads, trolley lines, telephones, social centers, rural credits, etc. have all been recommended to make farm life more attractive and wholesome. In spite of the many pioneer efforts in education in Massachusetts, for most great educational movements have had their origin on her soil, the state is just beginning to recognize that the rural school has not at all kept pace with the progress of the city schools and this lack of educational opportunity has had much to do with the exodus of some of the best people from the country to the city.

Among the educational institutions in Massachusetts which are doing most to improve the rural schools is the State Normal School at Worcester. The principal of this school, Dr. William B. Aspinwall, is moved by the conviction that every country child has just as good a right to the kind of education which he needs for life as the city child. He believes that the rural schools with their usual course of study planned by city bred educators, their books written by city teachers, and taught by city trained teachers are not likely to be in sympathy with rural communities and will thus fail to give the children the kind of education which they really need. With this in mind he has introduced into the normal school a number of courses designed to help prospective teachers to solve the problems that they are likely to meet. Graduates from village high schools who are likely to be more in sympathy with rural problems, are especially encouraged to take a special rural school course. Most of the students who expect to go into the rural schools to teach are given a chance to do their practice work in the real rural school.

To bring the rural school problems more prominently before the people of the state and to help in their solution, there is a conference held each year at the Worcester State Normal School. This is an annual event of unusual importance to the rural schools of

the state. It is attended by rural school teachers, superintendents, school committee men, representatives of the grange and other people interested in the movement for country betterment. On the programs of these conferences men of local, state and national importance have appeared from local superintendents of country schools to the U. S. Commissioner of Education, the president of the N. E. A., the State Commissioner of Education, college professors, and others. The state normal school has not been content merely to further the discussion of the problems in the abstract, but has undertaken investigations to find out the actual conditions in the rural schools, so that the problems known to exist are discussed and remedies are proposed. A recent investigation was undertaken by the school to find out the hygenic conditions in the rural schools of Worcester County and adjoining counties. This investigation showed that 14.5% of the school houses investigated were one hundred years old and over. While many of them are unusually interesting historically because they were once attended by famous men or women or were associated with some historical event, yet few of them are really fit for school purposes. Buildings which answered the felt needs of the people of the Commonwealth in the picturesque days of the "deestrict" school when pupils usually brought their own firewood and the teachers boarded around, are now inadequate. A new age demands new conditions. This investigation shows that only 6.6% of the school houses have been built in the last twenty-five years. Even if they were built on hygienic principles, which is scarcely probable, since the scientific building of rural school houses is very modern, only a small percentage of them would be acceptable according to the principles of modern school hygiene. This investigation shows further that little effort has been made to readapt school houses to modern hygienic needs. 65% of the schools were found to have no adjustable school furniture, floors were seldom scrubbed or oiled, few opportunities were offered pupils to heat anything for the mid-day luncheon, and in few cases was there any special apparatus for ventilation. Most of the rooms were not heated by jacketed stoves and were inadequately lighted. Wells were sometimes found to be not far distant from out-houses. Medical inspection was mostly perfunctory, and health instruction was still confined largely to facts in anatomy and physiology.

At the last conference in March, 1914, charts telling the story of this investigation were hung on the walls of the assembly hall where they might plainly be seen by everybody and thus suggest practical discussions. The program of this conference was participated in by representatives of the U. S. Bureau of Education and of various state and university departments of education. These experts overturned one of the most common traditions, that people in the country are more healthy than in the city. This was brought out very clearly by Dr. Thomas D. Wood, Professor of Physical Education, Columbia University, and Chairman of the Committee on Health Problems in Education, National Education Association. Dr. Wood reported extensive investigation which showed that there are more physical defects among country children than among city children. The great need of medical inspection among rural schools was clearly shown. Much attention was paid to the teaching of hygiene to children. Special emphasis was laid on the importance of inculcating hygenic habits rather than imparting knowledge. It was said, for example, that it is more important to get a child to clean his teeth than to give him any amount of information about the structure and function of the teeth. Some of the greatest experts in the country on rural school hygiene discussed the way an ideal rural school might be built, and what might be done in teaching hygiene and looking after the health of children even under the most adverse conditions. Health was emphasized as the greatest asset of any individual or any community.

The state normal school at Worcester has planned a number of rather extensive investigations to find out the actual conditions in the rural schools of Massachusetts. Subsequent annual conferences will consider these investigations with an idea of helping to bring about the necessary reform in the rural schools of Massachusetts.

The third annual conference in the early spring of 1915 will devote itself to "The Improvement of School Interiors and Grounds in Rural Communities." Many of the schools of Worcester County and adjoining counties are competing for prizes which are to be presented at this conference to the country schools which show the greatest improvements in house and grounds. The coming conference promises to be one of the most helpful and important of its kind that has taken place in this country.

Our Girls and Their Training

By Mabel L. Keech, A. B., Philadelphia, Pa.

THERE is plenty of agitation of the question of vocational training in the schools for boys, and if a girl intends to enter the business world, she, too, can find suitable courses to fit her for her vocation. But when one considers that even under the conditions of urban life today, the average girl finally enters upon that oldest of vocations for women—home-making,—the opportunities given her in our schools to prepare for it seem inadequate.

Academically, no one disputes the value of giving her a good grounding in domestic science. But in practice, this unanimity is by no means so conspicuous. A good many domestic science courses in our schools cover little more than cooking, and the instruction in that is given in a fairly advanced grade, to which a good many girls never attain.

But is there not a way of giving all the necessary groundwork of home-making to quite young girls, during the years when they are compelled to attend school? The advocate of kitchengarden answers yes, and presents concrete examples to enforce her argument. It is quite certain that in a number of institutional schools in New York, Philadelphia, and elsewhere, the system has been tried with entire success. It has had a partial introduction in the public school system also, but not so systematic and thorough a trial as it deserves.

Girls of from eight to eleven should make up the classes. One would think that a good many older and younger could take its discipline to advantage, but something would depend upon the individual child, the course having been carefully graded to meet the state of development of the average child between the ages given.

The plan of the kitchengarden is to cover all the essential activities of home making, with the exception of cooking, by means of actual practice. For this purpose an outfit of small house furnish-

ings, like those in the stores that are intended for playthings, but are large enough for "real" use, has been carefully arranged. They need be nothing more than home made articles, if the teacher is able to enlist manual training classes or some one handy with tools.

The teacher's method should be informal, giving the children enough freedom and initiative to preserve the spirit of play that renders it so attractive to the little girl. It should be her aim to encourage the children to invent improvements in every detail, to teach them to be quick and fertile in expedients when ordinary materials are unattainable, and to inspire them with the true home-making spirit, a keen interest in all that concerns the home.

For some years the writer has taught classes in kitchengarden drawn from the different levels of society, and she has yet to find the little girl who is inaccessible to the charm of the "game", or who has failed to catch its spirit and to translate it into terms of the actual home in which she lives. Mothers of all classes are delighted when their small daughters display an intelligent interest in home duties, and show that they are competent and willing to help with them. In fact, it seems that a little girl has only to know "how," and to get little insight into the true spirit of home making, to become eager to have a share in making her own home all that it should be. It is, no doubt, a fundamental instinct to which the training appeals, but without the training, the difficulties of home tasks only too often repel the child, and seem mere drudgery.

The average mother no longer can be depended upon to give her girl the training needed by the future home maker. On the contrary, she is apt to think it a benefit to the child to save her from all "drudgery" until she is forced to take it up in grim earnest. Her own training may have been gained by that same difficult path of "experience", so that her duties have never been systematized and made comparatively easy by proper methods. At any rate, whether she is directly to blame, or the young girl is forced by circumstances to go outside the home into the wage-earning world, the lamentable result is only too much in evidence everywhere.

Sweeping, dusting, bed making, dishwashing, washing and ironing, and allied home activities occupy the first year's course. The

little girl learns readily to perform all these tasks in play, and by the easiest and best methods. From the beginning of the course, she has a new interest and skill in home affairs; she begins to offer her services there because, as she says, she knows how to do it now. In the poorer homes, she is often a teacher herself, carrying lessons of neatness, order and sanitation to the ignorant mother, and acting as first aid in the baby-saving campaign.

During the second year, all these things are enlarged upon, and the more artistic side of home making taught. The care of clothing, and furnishings of all kinds is shown and practiced by her. The social relation of the home to the community is given attention, the guest room and preparations for hospitality generally being taught. The children are apt pupils, and often improve upon some detail of their model.

All this training is eminently practicable and it has proved remarkably successful wherever introduced. Teachers of domestic science have endorsed it again and again, claiming that when its graduates enter their classes, they are infinitely more capable and successful in grasping and putting into practice the new lessons than the untrained girl.

It would be pleasant if the reader could be introduced to some of the young girls who have studied under the writer. One look at the transformation worked in them and in their homes would be worth many preachments and arguments. Here are three young girls, motherless, who have taken entire charge of their father's house, a housekeeper being difficult to find. They are entirely competent, and claim that it was kitchengarden that made them so. In a very different class of home is Anna, who has taught her foreign peasant mother all the essentials of right living, lessons the mother took to heart because of the child's insistence that "that's the way teacher does; it's the right way."

A single hour a week for two years in the lower schools does not seem an excessive amount of time to give to preparing our girls for their true vocation in life, and it need interfere with nothing else in the plan of education. It is manual training, Froebelian methods and the Montessori system in one, touching each of these systems in at least some points of likeness—and founded, too, upon the true relation of the girl to society.

The Organization of Education

Frederic W. Sanders.

(*Continued from May Education.*)

§4. The Secondary Transition Department or the School for Pubescents.

A. *In General*:—Between the stage of development characterized as boyhood and girlhood proper, the stage for which our elementary department (corresponding roughly to what in American schools is sometimes designated as the intermediate department or the grammar school) is provided, and the stage of adolescence proper, for which the secondary department, or school for adolescents, or high school is designed, comes the transition stage of pubescence; and important practical economic reasons combine with theoretical pedagogical principles drawn from the study of genetic psychology, to make it advisable to plan a special curriculum for that critical year in the life of the young person in which he or she passes from boyhood or girlhood proper into adolescence. Such a curriculum for the secondary transition department of the school will now be proposed. I foresee that no part of this little work is likely to be more severely criticised than this curriculum for a secondary transition year; and yet I am inclined to think it doubtful whether any suggestion contained in this essay is of greater practical value than what is here proposed for that year of school life which may be regarded either as the finishing year of the elementary school or as the introductory year of the high school or secondary course of study, but which, however regarded, is the most critical year in the life of the young person and the one to which it is of the utmost importance that his education should be properly adapted.

The work of this transition department is planned for a single year, not from any such theoretical consideration as the supposition that a twelvemonth (or, more accurately, nine months), best measures the time during which the young person may properly be regarded as pubescent rather than adolescent, but because of

practical considerations. It is probably true that the intensity of the desire to get a birdseye view of things, to comprehend, to understand things, to see things in their larger general relations, rather than to manipulate things, is even stronger as adolescence advances than at the moment of its inception; yet it is especially to answer this need, which the mind of the young person passing from boyhood into youth feels, that the curriculum of the secondary transition department is adapted. The important practical considerations that point to a year as the normal length for the secondary transition curriculum, are that the law, in accordance with the wishes of a great part of our population, generally permits parents to take their children out of school and set them at work at fourteen years of age, and that, as regards a very large part of our population, both children and parents are eager to avail themselves of the privilege of finishing the child's school life at this time.

As regards the young person himself, it is probably true that the restiveness under the school life that so generally shows itself at this age, the impatience of the school routine and school discipline and the eagerness to get out of school and go to work or even remain at home and help in the work of the household, is largely the result of a badly constructed course of study and faulty methods, which fail to recognize the important difference between boyhood and girlhood proper, on the one hand, and pubescense on the other, and fatuously endeavor to feed the expanding mind of the pubescent with a mental pabulum that has been primarily designed for younger children and that is generally too one-sided and scholastic even to be quite palatable for the more pliant and less self-assertive and independent age of boyhood and girlhood proper. Were the school curriculum more wisely planned, it is unquestionable that many more children would be desirous of continuing their education beyong the elementary school; yet we should not shut our eyes to the fact that the evolution of a great part of our composite population has not carried them far enough along to make the higher education desirable or even possible for them. A condition, not a theory, confronts us in America, as elsewhere, today; and that condition is that for thousands of our young people the advent of adolescence marks the period at which (exclusive) school life and theoretical education should end,

simply because they are intellectually unfit for farther systematic advance along any but the most practical lines.

The year's curriculum for the secondary transition department is designed to meet the needs of that large number whose school life, by reason either of material or of intellectual poverty must end at the beginning of adolescence; and at the same time to be no less serviceable to those more fortunate young persons who are to continue their systematic education throughout a large part of the adolescent period. This twofold purpose is to be accomplished by giving to all young people at the advent of adolescence a summary and conspectus of the fundamental facts of science, history, and economics,—that is to say, what man has learned about the world of which he is a part and what mankind has accomplished for social welfare,—and by giving them at the same time a taste of literature, a little training in some practical or fine art, an opportunity for a year's consecutive work in a self-chosen line of study or practice, and throughout the year the most careful physical training. This will help those whose school life is to end at this point, to go to work with such an intelligent outlook upon their physical and social environment as must be of advantage to them, both materially and spiritually, in the struggle of life; while those who are to continue their education in the school for adolescents will thus be provided with a rough chart of the scope and extent of human art and science, which will enable them to elect their future studies with the greater intelligence; and even should they specialize quite narrowly in their future studies they will be protected by this birdseye view of the breadth and extent of human interests and this brief summary of human achievements, from that narrow ignorance of and indifference to whatever lies outside one's *own* field of study and effort which today so often characterizes the highly trained specialist in science, art and literature.

What I have suggested and now purpose to outline with somewhat more of detail, may seem at first glance to constitute a pretty heavy program for a single year; but in reality the course is light, rather than heavy, for only the elective course and the course in literature require any outside preparation. As to these two courses it may be added that, should the elective course be one in some line of manual training, there would be little or no

work in it outside of school hours, and in the literature course, while outside reading is to be encouraged, only a minimum of such reading and little or no outside writing is to be required from any one who does not enjoy the work enough to be personally desirous of doing the reading and reporting thereon for his own pleasure and entertainment. Physical culture is really to be central this year, and all the work should be subject to a competent physician's judgment as to the pupil's fitness for it. While it might sometimes happen that an exceptionally delicate and nervous young person could not take the whole curriculum in a single year, yet the curriculum is deliberately planned so that, in case the great physical changes and the rapid and unsymmetrical growth that characterize pubescence should unfit for much systematic intellectual or physical work, *a minimum of effort* and yet a *maximum of inspiring and entertaining occupation* will be at hand.*

B. *The Curriculum for the Secondary Transition Department should consist of:—*

1. Required Courses:

a. *Science.* A course designed to give a general notion of the fundamental truths of nature thus far established or regarded as highly probable by the students of natural science.

This should be, in the main, a lecture and demonstration course; there should be no *required* home work, no formal recitations; and, from the nature of the course and its wide scope, there could be little opportunity for individual laboratory experimentation on the part of the pupils, but the instructor might with advantage spend the first part of each period enlisting the pupils' assistance in reviewing the progress so far made in the course, thus testing their understanding of what he had endeavored to make clear to them, and taking this opportunity to elucidate the matter still further where that should appear to be necessary.

The subjects following should be embraced in this summary of contemporary science: *physics,* the first month, carried far enough to make it possible to take up chemistry intelligently the second month. After physics, *chemistry, astronomy, geology, physical geography* and *meteorology;* then *biology* (first botany, then

* With the omission of the physical culture (which the crowded buildings and insufficient appropriations make no provision for) the course herein outlined for the Secondary Transition Department, has been given substantially in the ninth grade or introductory year of the high school at Lincoln (Neb.), since September, 1905.

zoölogy), which should be completed by the presentation of the elements of human physiology and hygiene. The course in biology should acquaint the pupils with the general structure, life history and habits of typical living beings, vegetable and animal, from the lowest to the highest, and should point out the correspondences found in the embryonic development of different species and the resemblance to lower adult forms seen in the early stages of embryonic and extra-uterine development of higher species. This introduction to biology, and especially the attention given to the structure and functions of human beings, should make evident that thought, as well as emotion and sensation, is a part of the life activity of the higher animals, and should thus lay a foundation for the presentation (in the last month of the school year) of the simplest elements of *psychology*. This should consist in showing, first, that there is a correspondence between the emotion and thought of man and animals, on the one hand, and the activity of their nerves and brains, on the other; that bodily actions and habits of action affect our thought and feeling, and that our thought and feeling also affect our body; and hence, incidentally, that *the formation of good, wholesome habits is of the utmost importance for us*: secondly, that it is easy to err by misinterpreting our sensations of sight, hearing, touch, *etc.*, any one of which may mislead us if not compared with our other sensations—thus making evident that sanity and wisdom are dependent upon the correlation and comparison of all our sources of knowledge and the acceptance as true of that alone which is consistent with *all* our means of judging of reality. Finally, the pupils' attention should be brought to the fact that all that we know (whether our knowledge relates to "science" or to "history," as some philosophers contrast those concepts), the whole of each man's or boy's knowledge of the universe, is only what he himself feels and thinks,—either what he is *directly* conscious of in his sensations, emotions and thoughts, or what he is *indirectly* conscious of by hearing and reading what others say as to what other people have seen, heard, tasted, smelt, felt, thought, or, in a word, been conscious of. In this way the young people may be led to appreciate the fundamental distinction between the *objective* consideration of the things with which man concerns himself—the consideration of them as parts of a great universe of reality of which he himself is but

a small part (this being the way in which the boy or girl has previously been in the habit of considering everything)—and the *subjective* consideration of everything as a *part of the consciousness of him* who is feeling these things or thinking about them. I feel confident that a *competent* instructor, by properly leading up to the subject, can present even this crucial distinction of psychology to normally intelligent young people standing at the threshold of adolescence; but whether or not, the pubescent can thus be led to pierce to the heart of psychology. All the rest that I have treated under this heading can and should be presented to the pubescent in a few simple talks illustrated by interesting but simple experiments.

As introductory to each division of natural science treated of in this year's work, or at the conclusion of the presentation of the special science in question, or else, less desirably, at the end of the whole year's work, during the last fortnight of the school year, a few hours should be devoted to a brief sketch of the progress of the science, calling attention to the biographies of some of those whose names have been most closely associated with these conquests of nature.

These courses should be somewhat similar to the better and more systematic popular science courses offered to unlearned adults. Throughout, the hypothetical character of scientific theories should not be blinked, but the test of legitimacy in theory should be insisted upon,—to wit, consistency with all observed facts, and "workability," or effectiveness in rendering the universal comprehensible. Text or guide books of the several subjects, physics, chemistry, physiology, *etc.*, might be put into the hands of the pupils as the several subjects are taken up (provided suitable books can be found), to help the student to a fuller insight into the subject, if inclined to further study; the pupils should be encouraged to keep note books, and should be referred to the best books available to give them a larger knowledge of the subject; a syllabus of the instructor's course might be put into the pupils' hands, if nothing else were; but in all cases *the use of these aids should be left optional with the pupil,* his attendance at the lectures, or *talks,* and participation in the class discussion being all that should be required of him.

While every effort should be made to interest the young people,

while the subject should be so presented as to give to reasonably attentive pupils a fair knowledge of the most far-reaching results of the science in question, and while the information-content of the instruction should be as large as the limited time and, on the part of the pupil, the limited experience, the immaturity and the ignorance of auxiliary subjects would make possible, yet care should be taken throughout to whet, rather than to sate, the interest and intellectual appetite of the young people; interesting vistas not followed out should be opened from time to time, and every effort made to show to these young people at this impressionable age how vast and interesting are the fields of science, of which they are given a birdseye view. When possible, occasional popular lectures by distinguished specialists may be made a part of the year's program.

The means by which the knowledge presented has been reached, should be indicated, and the satisfaction of being able to discover such things for one's self strongly suggested. The necessity for a considerable knowledge of mathematics for any extended, first-hand knowledge of physics, astronomy, *etc.* should be made very clear; and the like necessity for this mathematical knowledge in order to apply the laws of physics to the practical problems of life, as met by the mechanician and the engineer, should be driven home. In short, while a sincere effort should be made throughout the work of this year to give to the young person a fairly systematic and comprehensive idea of the true nature of *the world he lives in,* of the operation of the forces that affect his life and welfare, and of *his own nature,* he should throughout be impressed by the vastness of it all and should be made wise by becoming conscious of the extent of his ignorance, so that the desire for larger, deeper, first-hand knowledge may be aroused. In summing up the history of the development of each of the several sciences, advantage should be taken of the opportunity to call attention to the most pressing problems still awaiting solution, and to indicate the points at which the students of the science in question feel their ignorance most keenly. In a word, the young people should be made to understand clearly that at the end of this year they have but reached the threshold of the world of science.

b. A course in the *History* of human development, preceded by such a picture of primitive man as anthropology suggests to us,

and picturing savage and barbarous life before passing to the historic nations; giving the probable reasons for the early development of a fairly high civilization in the great sub-tropic river valleys of Africa and Asia minor; and then proceeding to show how the present economic, political or religious institutions of the United States are indebted to those early civilizations; showing how the torch of civilization has been passed on from one people to another, variously modified in the transition, until today the descendants of the barbarous hordes that inhabited central Europe in the first century of the Christian era have achieved in Europe, America and Australasia, the highest civilization the world has yet attained; showing that the *art* of each people and each period reflects, as it is the expression of, the feeling of (the dominant element of) the people of that time, and that progress in *science* is progress in the (intellectual) interpretation of the habits of the universe, or, as we usually say, of the laws of nature; showing then how art and science have reacted on the moral ideas of people and changed their political and religious usages as well as their industrial system. At the conclusion of the course there should be an attempt to sum up the results of the moral insight gained by us at the end of these centuries of progressive civilization, so that a high and yet a sane and serviceable ideal of the true, the good and the beautiful may uplift the hearts of the young people. The meaning and importance of the social sciences—of economics, political science, ethics, æsthetics and philosophy—should be indicated at least.

This course should be given by lectures and auxiliary conversations; or rather, throughout by *talks*. Good books of reference, as well as charts and maps, should be at hand and should be referred to by the teacher, and pupils should be encouraged to make use of them. As regards books to be read in connection with the course, such works as Myers's History of the Eastern Nations and Greece and other books of that scope would probably be more attractive and useful than such a brief compendium as Myers's General History, on the one hand, or very elaborate special studies, on the other. Mrs. Sheldon-Barnes's General History is full of valuable suggestions for one conducting such a course as is here proposed. Historical novels should be recommended to make the course vivid; and if it should be necessary, as a means of interest-

ing the pupils in them, a few hours in the year might be devoted to readings by the instructor from the best passages of some of these novels. Attention should be directed to the literary monuments, and good translations of these should be at hand. There should be occasional readings from such writers as Homer, Thucydides, Livy, Commines, Froissart, from Fénélon's Télémache, from Chaucer, Swift, Bunyan, and the ballad literature, as well as from the less literary remains of an earlier day, such as the monkish chronicles (and the early writings of Egypt and Babylonia-Assyria should be similarly used). The poems and romances of early times should be given some attention. Marco Polo and Sir John Mandeville might be compared with Münchäusen on the one hand, and with Livingston and Stanley on the other.

The course should be so arranged that the ground could be covered in four days a week, leaving every fifth day for exercises of an auxiliary character,—readings and discussions, perhaps debates on historical questions, plays, recitations, *etc.* But in the discussions and debates care should be taken that the standards of today be not unfairly applied to a different stage of culture, with different conditions, possibilities and needs. Debate should be used, not to intensify prejudice against this or that people, person or line of conduct, but rather to awaken sympathy with different phases of life and with unaccustomed points of view. Pupils should be encouraged in a friendly rivalry to see who could bring to the class from the library the most interesting illustrative matter; they might hand in to the teacher a brief statement of what they had found, bearing on the history of the people or period then under discussion; and the best of these (or occasionally those which showed the most effort) might be presented to the class. Excursions, visits to museums and monuments, *etc.,* would also occasionally have their place, so far as these would not interfere with the work in the other departments of study pursued by the pupils. But all the outside reading, preparation for discussion, *etc.* should be optional.

Federal Aid to Military Education in Colleges

By Thomas Marshall Spaulding, First Lieutenant,
Coast Artillery Corps, Fort Howard, Maryland.

"THE government of the United States, like most federal governments, has had no policy with regard to education." This is the statement, made in 1911, of the president of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. And immediately after, in speaking of the Morrill Act of 1862, he characterizes it as "largely an accidental measure," "enacted without any thinking of a careful sort as to the effect that the educational agency thus created would have."

The passage of the Morrill Act was the most important step ever taken by the federal government in aid of education. If no adequate consideration was given to the probable results of this measure, other legislation on such matters is likely to have been largely controlled by chance. Such legislation may have been productive of considerable benefit, but usually with an undue expenditure of money or time or effort; and it is well, at however late a date, to undertake the "thinking of a careful sort" which may unfortunately have been omitted in the beginning.

By a series of acts of Congress the federal government has committed itself to the policy of assisting military education in schools and colleges not under federal control. This is done in two ways: by the detail of army officers as instructors of military science and tactics, and by the loan or gift of arms, equipment and ammunition. The authorized number of institutions thus aided has been increased by successive enactments until at the present time 100 officers of the active list—or, if retired, drawing active pay and allowances—are allowed upon this duty, besides an indefinite number of retired officers and non-commissioned officers who receive no compensation from the United States other than their regular retired pay. Rifles and infantry equipment are loaned to all these institutions; cavalry equipment and field guns

to some of them. Ammunition and target supplies are furnished to the total value of $30,000 annually.

What with the value of the ammunition expended and the accoutrements worn out in service, and the compensation to retired officers in excess of their regular retired pay, the cost to the government is considerable,—trifling, to be sure, in comparison with the two and a half millions annually appropriated for agricultural and mechanical education, but regarded by itself by no means negligible. Now what return is derived from this investment? Clearly the army itself is not benefited; on the contrary, it suffers the loss of a number of its officers who are withdrawn from their normal duties. The gain, then, if not to the army, must be to the country at large; let us see wherein it consists.

One advantage to the nation is perfectly obvious. Our army always has been, is now, and presumably always will be, insignificant in size, and any war of the slightest magnitude will require it to be tripled,—perhaps increased twentyfold. This means a tremendous number of recruits to be assimilated and made into soldiers; if some of them have even the rudiments of military training the process will be shortened. Such training for young men in schools and colleges may be of exceptional value in time of war, for it is from the educated class that the officers of the volunteer army, like the leaders in any other undertaking, must chiefly be drawn. "The chief motive for the insertion of the military-drill requirement in the Morrill Act", says (November, 1913) the dean of the engineering college of Ohio State University, "was probably to strengthen our feeble military preparedness by the creation of a body of educated citizen soldiery which in time of war would become an asset of great importance to us. It was evidently inspired by the serious shortage of persons fit to become officers in the Civil War, which was then in progress, and the terrible suffering of our troops, due to the incompetence and inexperience of their officers."

Here the argument for military instruction in schools is generally ended. (It must be borne in mind that we are not considering the disciplinary and cultural value which this study, like every other, possesses in greater or less degree.) But there is another benefit, less apparent, less definite, but none the less real. Hitherto

it has been generally ignored by both the educator and the soldier, but fortunately both are now beginning to turn their attention to it. I mean the dissemination among the educated men and women of the United States of that general, untechnical knowledge of the military system, the military policy, the military strength and weakness of our country, which should be as much a part of the mental stock-in-trade of every good citizen as are opinions on the tariff or the trusts or public sanitation or the liquor traffic.

Assuming that federal aid is to be given at all,—and, wisely or not, this seems to be definitely settled,—it is the degree of attainment of these two objects that must measure the return on the government's investment. Much will depend upon the attitude of the trustees and faculties of the institutions concerned; much, also, upon the character and abilities of the officers detailed. No general rules can be laid down for such matters, but each case must be dealt with individually. Officers unsuited to such work should of course not be detailed; or, if the unfitness is developed during the tour of duty, they should be withdrawn. Institutions failing to give adequate support to their military departments should forfeit federal aid in favor of other colleges willing to coöperate honestly with the government. But leave aside these special cases. We have two definite ends in view; what general rules can be laid down best calculated for the attainment of these ends? Some general policy should be recognized and faithfully adhered to. If the system is left to run itself there is no knowing what the eventual result may be.

Analysis of the several acts of Congress bearing on the subject shows that there are but two conditions which an institution is required by law to fulfill in order to receive the governmental assistance already referred to: first, that it shall have "capacity to educate at the same time not less than 150 male students" (act of September 26, 1888); and second, that it give drill and instruction in military tactics (act of January 13, 1891). A regulation of the war department further provides that it shall have actually under military instruction a certain minimum number of male pupils over fifteen years of age. This number is 100 for distinctly military schools and colleges, and 150 for others, if an officer of the active list is to be detailed; 75 if an officer of the

retired list is to be detailed on active pay, except in the case of land-grant colleges, where no minimum number is prescribed. Retired officers receiving from the United States only their retired pay may be detailed to any school fulfilling the general requirements of the statute, regardless of the number or age of the pupils actually in attendance.

At the date of the last official report,—the end of the school year of 1912-'13,—officers on full pay were serving at 86 institutions; at four others entitled to army instructors the position was vacant for the time being; six schools had officers detailed on retired pay. All these 96 institutions received arms, equipments and ammunition in greater or less quantity. A total of 29,402 students was reported as receiving military instruction, of whom 929 were under fifteen years of age.

Over half of these institutions can unquestionably be rated as universities or colleges; about one-quarter can with equal certainty be set down as secondary schools. The others are more or less difficult to classify. Some, though ostensibly colleges, have such low entrance requirements and such elementary courses that their real place in the educational system seems very doubtful. On the other hand, certain secondary schools have departments that may be considered junior colleges. In perhaps the majority of the doubtful cases there is a heterogeneous mixture of preparatory and collegiate students on the same campus and even in the same classes. It is accordingly difficult to draw any hard and fast line, but we may without material error consider 34 of these 96 as secondary schools, and 62, or not quite two-thirds, as colleges. These 62, however, have almost exactly five-sixths of the total number of students under military instruction,—24,500 in all, an average of about 400. The remaining 34 schools have 4902 pupils, an average of about 145.

Now the preparatory schools with very few exceptions are distinctively *military* academies; the pupils are always in uniform, the forms of administration and discipline are military throughout, and the daily routine is modelled more or less closely on that of West Point. Of the colleges, only six or eight are of this type, most of them very small. In the rest military training is incidental. Fifty of them are land-grant colleges, compelled to give this instruction in order to receive the federal appropriation, and in some the compliance with the law is merely perfunctory.

A mere outward imitation of the forms and customs of West Point is no evidence, however, of any great attainments in military science and art; and training that does not extend beyond ordinary drillground maneuvers, necessary as these are for the soldier, does not accomplish much of value. Probably there is not so much difference as would at first appear between the quality of the military training of the avowedly military school and that of the "civilian" institution. The former, too, is likely to be very small, rarely having as many as 200 pupils, often less than 100. Miami Military Institute (Ohio) and Peacock Military College (Texas), for example, report 53 students each; Missouri Academy has 60; three schools in California have from 74 to 98 each; Northwestern Military Academy (Illinois) has 84, and so on. Evidently the contribution of such schools toward either of the purposes previously referred to must be very limited. The "civilian" colleges, as a general rule, are much larger. There are exceptions, it is true. The University of Wyoming reports only 33 as actually under military instruction, and the University of Arizona only 70. Both of these, however, are young state universities, destined to grow enormously in the next few years, in both attendance and equipment. At the other end of the scale we find five institutions, each with more than 1100 enrolled in their student regiments—about 1400 on the average. Considering numbers alone, the influence of each of these would seem to be equal to that of eight average military schools, and since among these five are four of the best state universities and one high grade technical school, it is plain that the relative influence is actually much greater than is indicated by size alone.

For the better attainment of the first of the purposes mentioned earlier,—that of providing an adequate source of supply for officers of volunteers,—it would seem good policy to divert the aid now given, from the weakest—in numbers and curriculum—of these schools, to those strongest in these respects. At present one lone officer is detailed to instruct the 1200 cadets of the Universities of Minnesota or California or Illinois, the same number assigned to each of some fifteen schools of less than 100 students. Size should not be the sole consideration, of course, for among the smaller institutions are some that are excellent in both the scholastic and the military departments, while some of the larger

ones are inferior in both. But there cannot be an unlimited allowance of either men or money, and it would be well to sacrifice at least the microscopic preparatory schools for the additional benefit of the great universities.

It is sometimes thought that the essentially military schools deserve extra consideration on the ground that they are training officers for the regular army to a greater extent than the other colleges. This is true in certain cases, but by no means as a general rule. There are in the army at the present time more than 60 graduates of the Virginia Military Institute, St. John's College (Maryland) furnishes 25, and one or two others of the military schools are well represented; but some even of those classified by the war department as "distinguished" for military training have contributed only two or three. Most colleges of any consequence supply as many as that, and there are probably half a dozen offering no military training at all that have more graduates in the army than any one of the "distinguished military schools," with the one notable exception of the Virginia Military Institute.

It is well, moreover, that this should be the case. The distinctively military institutions are nearly all secondary schools, and of the colleges few are of satisfactory standing. It is an odd fact that these colleges, generally small and with inadequate resources, have almost uniformly undertaken that line of work which calls for the greatest expenditure and the most costly equipment. Nearly all are primarily engineering schools; some are exclusively so. The funds that might support a modest and worthy collegiate course can provide only the most meager facilities for laboratory and shop work. Probably this tendency is in part due to the attempt to imitate West Point in all respects, coupled with the curious delusion, almost everywhere prevalent, that West Point is an engineering school.

The standard universities and colleges afford a far better source of supply for our corps of army officers than do nine-tenths of the military schools. In no profession are the breadth of mind and discipline of the intellectual faculties derived from good education of more real and practical value than in the military service; and, it must unfortunately be added, in no profession is this value less clearly realized. Until recently the educational requirements

for commission in the army have been astonishingly low; and though the standard is now a reasonable one, the opinion generally prevails that a little elementary military training is worth more than the best general education. It is a singular situation. In a country cheerfully neglectful of all preparation for war, and convinced that any man may instantly be converted into a soldier by the addition of a uniform and a gun, there is nevertheless an exaggerated respect for the military qualifications of the schoolboy who has learned the elements of infantry drill, and is, perhaps, competent to handle a platoon or company on the parade ground. He can of course make a better appearance during the first few days or weeks of service; in the long run, in the army as everywhere else, education tells.

All things considered, it will hardly be denied that the best returns on the government's investment are to be had from those large institutions of high grade which provide a certain amount of practical drill and instruction. Among these we find a good proportion of the leading universities,—Cornell, Wisconsin, and others,—and of the engineering schools of the highest type, such as Purdue and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Many more of the best, however, are missing from the list. Harvard, Michigan, Yale, Chicago, Columbia, and others of similar standing, have no military departments. But it is just these universities that offer the best field for the accomplishment of the second of our purposes, though not the first. Many students who, having no expectation of ever performing military service, are unwilling to give their time to drill and practical training, would be glad enough to learn something of army organization, of military history, and of the general principles of the art of war. Here is an opportunity hitherto neglected. Some of the officers now vegetating in obscure and minute preparatory schools could be far better employed in the large universities, even though no drill whatever were included in the course of instruction. Most of the universities would welcome this arrangement and give their hearty assistance, though unwilling to organize and maintain regular battalions or regiments. To bring this about would require legislation, it is true, for the present law provides that "no officer shall be detailed to or maintained at any of the educational institutions . . . where instruction and drill in military tactics

is not given." It is not likely, however, that this law would be difficult of amendment if the war department should request the change.

Though much remains to be done, the progress in the army itself toward a clear appreciation of its relations with education has been most encouraging during the last few years. Sympathy from the outside often seems lacking, but in this, too, there is improvement. A careful study of the whole subject, not by a soldier but by an educational expert, would be a blessing both to the army and to the institutions concerned.

A UNITED AFRICA

(Born Nov. 4, 1910.)

Hail, Star of Freedom, rising in the East!
  May Heaven's richest blessings on thee fall.
At last, from strife and bitterness released,
  Peace, white winged, may cover war's grim pall.

Within an ancient land of mystery,
  With dust of ages dim, although it be,
A fair, sweet child is born to history,
  As fabled Venus rose from out the sea.

The sea? Alas, it was a sea of blood,
  Poured out by patriots in freedom's name.
Why liberty must cost this sanguine flood,
  Is Heaven's mystery and human shame.

We of the west can give no better cheer
  To this new land, like ours in name and mould,
Than: "May God give you, living in His fear,
  Our splendid strength, with less of greed for gold."

What great achievements may the world now see!
  In brain and brawn, who dares to call thee poor?
What race or nation worthier to be free
  Than one that mingles Briton and the Boer!

No longer land of mystery and doubt,
  Of myth and monster, dimly scanned afar,
With strife and sloth and bitterness forgot,
  Thy light may shine as Freedom's Morning Star!

—Dewey Austin Cobb.

American Notes—Editorial

We believe that it is the solemn duty of every editor, every minister, every statesman, and every person who has influence over other minds, to advocate the American ideals of disarmament, the universal brotherhood of mankind and permanent peace for the nations of the world. The fearful object-lesson which the European war affords, of the folly, waste and woe of war, should be impressed indelibly upon the minds of the present and the coming generations. If this can be done it will be altogether the greatest result of the war, whoever wins and whatsoever other advantage any one may possibly gain from it. It is humiliating to reflect that the race has been to school so long in the school of bitter experience, and remained so dull and stupid that the lesson has to be finally beaten in by so heavy a chastisement. We rejoice, however, that our own nation has seen so clearly and thought so deeply into the meaning of the present stupendous conflict. Our people are profoundly moved with sympathy for all the combatants. We are in a position to see the great moral principles involved, and to weigh the delicate questions that always arise out of such a clash of human interests, and to reach conclusions that are dispassionate, clear and convincing. We have a President, who by training and experience as well as by endowment and disposition, is well qualified to lead in the proffer of the friendly offices of the United States in bringing about an ultimate peace. Public sentiment must unanimously sustain him. The teachers can do much to conserve the influences for good that will arise out of the situation. While refraining from all idle discussions of the war and its horrors they may lead the minds and hearts of their pupils ever toward the thought of the blessings of peace. The duty and the privilege of brotherliness, the joy of forgiveness, the satisfactions arising out of unselfish ministration to those in poverty, distress and need can be dwelt upon and practically illustrated. We understand that a plan is on foot for the children of the United States to load a ship with Christmas presents to be sent over to the poor suffering children of Europe, many of them orphaned and friendless and certain to have no Christmas cheer save by some such kindly thoughtfulness by strangers from over the seas. Let us hope that this beautiful, Christlike idea will materialize and that it will be effective in showing the children of both parts of the world how much more blessed it is to love than to hate.

The Hon. Carl Schurz, a distinguished American Citizen of German birth, has given utterance to sentiments of peace which are so forceful and so profound that we are glad to reproduce them in this department of EDUCATION. He says:

"As an American, proud of his country and anxious that this republic should prove itself equal to the most glorious of its opportunities, I cannot but denounce as a wretched fatuity that so-called patriotism which will not remember that we are the envy of the whole world for the priceless privilege of being exempt from the oppressive burden of warlike preparations; which, when it sees other nations groaning under that load, tauntingly asks, "Why do you not disarm?" and then insists that the American people, too, shall put the incubus of a heavy armament on their backs, which would drag this republic down from its high degree of the championship of peace among nations, and degrade it to the vulgar level of the bully ready and eager for a fight. We hear much of the necessity of an elaborate system of coast fortifications to protect our seaports from assault. How far such a system may be desirable I will not here discuss. But I am confident our strongest, most effective, most trustworthy and infinitely the cheapest coast defence will consist in 'Fort Justice,' 'Fort Good Sense,' 'Fort Self-respect,' 'Fort Good Will,' and, if international differences really do arise, 'Fort Arbitration.'

Let no one accuse me of resorting to the claptrap of the stump speech in discussing this grave subject. I mean exactly what I say, and am solemnly in earnest. This republic can have no other armament so effective as the weapons of peace. Its security, its influence, its happiness and its glory will be greater the less it thinks of war. Its moral authority will be far more potent than heavy squadrons and big guns. And this authority will, in its intercourse with foreign nations, be best maintained by that justice which is the duty of all; by that generous regard not only for the rights, but also the self-respect of others, which is the distinguishing mark of the true gentleman; and by that patient forbearance which is the most gracious virtue of the strong."

A home-education division of the Bureau of Education has been established. Its objects are: "To help parents in the home education of their children with reference to health, games, and play, early mental development, and formation of moral habits; to interest boys and girls, who have left school and are still at home, by directing their home reading and study; and to further the education of the parents in the home."

To help accomplish this the Bureau of Education co-operates with the National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations, with a view to reaching as many homes as possible. A series of bulletins on home educational problems has been prepared and parents desiring advice in child nurture and home making may receive it from the Bureau.

As a basis for further work the home-education division has obtained a carefully selected list of women in all parts of the United

States to co-operate in extension of opportunities to all parents for education in home making. County superintendents of schools were asked to furnish the names of women in their communities who could be depended upon for a certain amount of initiative and leadership. Through the efforts of the 1,593 women thus selected and from other sources, the Bureau has been furnished with nearly 40,000 names of mothers who feel the need of information on the care and home training of children, and it is with these 40,000 mothers that a beginning has been made.

The bulk of the requests are for help in the problems of home making and care of the children. The mothers ask the Bureau for help in choosing literature, in reading courses for themselves and for their children. They ask for bulletins on "home matters;" material for home study for boys and girls; literature on moral training; books suitable to children who have completed the common school course; methods of bringing together the home and the school; suggestions for forming sewing and cooking classes; and information necessary for organizing parent-teacher associations.

Some of the states, through packet libraries and by other means, are reaching these people who are without access to the usual sources of information; but in most localities no effort is made to reach the mothers themselves with the facts that are essential to the sound development of the children and the home. It is in this field that the home-education division plans to do its work, not by interference with local conditions, but as a clearing house of information for state and local authorities.

At a meeting of the Conference on Civic Secretaryship as Public Service held in June last at Wisconsin's capitol, Miss Margaret Wilson made the following valuable suggestion:

"The public school principals are the persons to serve as civic secretaries. I foresee the time when this office will be recognized as the greatest in any community."

In accordance with this thought we are informed that "in a hundred Wisconsin schoolhouses during the coming season, lantern slides and motion pictures showing everything from 'The Merchant of Venice' to 'The Making of Hoisery,' not forgetting 'Mexico,' 'The Evolution of the Silkworm' or 'Alice's Adventures in Wonderland,' will be displayed. Each of these Neighborhood Buildings becomes a motion picture theatre with a weekly slide and film service that could not be duplicated by purchase for less than four thousand, five hundred dollars. But except in Osseo and Sank City, the only people who have the right to any benefit or enjoyment of these motion pictures are the school pupils. If the principals happen to be willing in other communities to donate their service as a charity to the adult citizens and to the young men and women, so that they may see the pictures at even-

ing exhibits, they may do so, but the adults and older youth have no right to expect it, for the principals are hired to serve only the children. In Osseo and Sank City, on the other hand, the motion picture machine comes definitely, and without any charity on the part of the principal, into its true place as, not only a vitalizing force in the instruction of the children in the day time, but as a marvelous social magnet and dynamo of common interest and enthusiasm for all the people, as they gather for its use in the evening. This service costs not one cent more in these towns where all the people will have its benefit of evenings, than in those where it will be enjoyed only in its daytime use by the school children. The one question is whether the school principal is made responsible for service to the children only, or, being paid for work as Civic Secretary, is made responsible for service to all the people."

We are glad to call attention to an article in the October number of "The Forum", by Helen S. Gray, on the subject of vaccination, because we have convictions on this subject which are in general accord with those of the author of the said article.

Miss Gray quotes Dr. Charles Creighton, an eminent English physician who has made a special study of epidemics and was engaged to write an article for "The Encyclopedia Brittanica" on vaccination. At that time he was a believer in it but changed his views when he investigated the subject. What he wrote is in the ninth English edition, but was omitted from some or all of the American editions. "As a medical man", he once declared, "I assert that vaccination is an insult to common sense; that it is superstitious in its origin, unsatisfactory in theory and practice, and useless and dangerous in its character." He testified before the British Royal Commission on Vaccination that in his opinion it affords no protection whatever. He has written several books on the subject.

"Vaccination is an economic question, not a medical one," George Bernard Shaw declares in the preface to his "Doctor's Dilemma." Protest is growing rapidly. Niagara Falls, North Tonowanda, Olean, Oswego, Berkeley, California, and Toledo are some of the places where large numbers of parents have refused compliance and fought the issue. When a vaccination order was promulgated last winter in Toledo, the parents of 18,000 children kept them out of school. The Board of Education got around the difficulty by extending the Christmas vacation for another week and then admitting pupils regardless of vaccination. As superintendents, principals and teachers are liable to lose their positions if they engage in an anti-vaccination crusade, parents are the ones to do it.

There has been such constant iteration of the germ theory in newspapers and magazines that to many people it never occurs that

there can be any alternative. If germs do not cause disease, what does? If germs do not spread it in epidemics, how is it spread, and how are epidemics ended? If vaccines, serums and antitoxins do not effect a cure or immunity, what does? These are the questions the article deals with. The views of some of the most distinguished physicians of various schools, including a few of the regulars, are cited on these subjects.

Examinations for important positions in the United States Bureau of Education at Washington will be held during September and October.

The places to be filled are: Specialist in Industrial Education, at $3,500; specialist in educational systems, $1,800; specialist in school and home gardening, $3,000, with an assistant at $1,600; specialist in home economics, $3,500; specialist in agricultural education, $3,500; translator, $1,800; and assistant in rural education, $1,800. Women are desired for the positions of specialist in home economics, specialist in educational systems, assistant in school and home gardening, and assistant in rural education. The other positions are open to men.

Full information as to date and place of the examinations may be obtained from the Civil Service Commission, Washington, D. C.

The official reports for the several state penitentiaries and jails make an interesting showing as to the number of prisoners in state penal institutions as between the states under prohibition and those under license. The states of Kansas, Maine and North Dakota are the only three states which have been under prohibition during the past ten years. The number of state prisioners per 100,000 population in Kansas is 85.4; the number in Maine is 98.3; the number in North Dakota is 63.6, while the number in the state of Massachusetts is 199.3.

This ratio, moreover, holds good in the classification of all the states. The average number of state prisoners per 100,000 population in the three prohibition states named above is 84.4. In the seventeen near prohibition states the average number is 115.8. In the thirteen partial license states the average number is 118, while in the nine extreme license states the average number is 130.

Foreign Notes

FRENCH INFLUENCE IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES.—The efforts of France to extend its intellectual influence to other countries are exercised in two directions: by the establishment of institutes in the chief cities of southern Europe and Russia, under the joint auspices of universities in France and in the respective foreign countries; by the spread of the French language and literature through the medium of secondary schools.

A recent report on the study of the French language in the schools of Roumania discloses the fact that in the public secondary schools of that country there is a growing preference for the German language, due apparently to the purpose on the part of a large proportion of the students to finish their studies in the universities of Germany. The French language, on the contrary, is preferred in private schools and is obligatory in the schools of industry (arts and trades) with which the country is liberally supplied. This obligation is a striking proof of the commercial importance of the French language. The report referred to notes the unusual facility with which the Roumanians master the pronunciation and the idioms of the French language.

BERLIN—SCHOOLS FOR THE PEOPLE.—Berlin is noted for its ample provision for the education of all classes of children. Attendance upon full time day schools is compulsory for the ages 6 to 14, after which young people must attend either continuation schools for general instruction or trade schools, from 14 to 17 years of age.

Special provision is made for children who have reached the compulsory school age but are not competent to undertake full school tasks and for those who for any reason cannot keep up with their classes.

For the children of school age who are below the normal standard kindergartens are maintained which follow a special program combining hygienic and educational elements adapted to individual conditions. There are eight such schools in Berlin. Each class is limited to 30 pupils, and the daily session is from 3 to 4 hours.

The Hilfsschulen are intended for children who cannot keep up with the classes to which they belong and therefore require special help. The pupils are drawn from different schools without regard to denominational relations, and are brought up when possible to the standard of their respective grades. Berlin had at last report 168 Hilfsschul-Klassen with 2497 pupils; in the suburban districts there were 85 such classes with 1615 pupils. Of the classes in the city proper 23 were for deaf children.

An instructive feature of the Berlin system is the provision for continuing the instruction of boys who belong to the class of unskilled workers, which form a certain proportion of the male population in every great city. Although in Berlin no effort is made to prepare such boys for skilled work they are obliged to attend continuation classes, and a special program is prepared for them. This program is arranged for three years and comprises the following divisions: The juvenile worker in his employment; the worker in relation to the community. The subjects of instruction are grouped as follows: Employment and citizenship; writing and composition; calculations.

The continuation schools are supported by contributions from trade guilds and other private sources, by tuition fees, which are often paid by employers, and by city and state appropriations.

Pedagogy at the University of La Plata.—In the University of La Plata, the Argentine Republic possesses a centre of modern learning, which bears comparison with new departments in the universities of Europe and North America. The faculty of law and social sciences includes a section of pedagogy which will probably be organized shortly as a separate faculty. The program of this section accords with the experimental principle that prevails throughout the university. It comprises the following courses: Anthropology and abnormal psychology; general methodology and history of education; science of education; school hygiene; anatomy and physiology of the nervous system; general psychology and school legislation; composition and style; and practical teaching. The courses are all entrusted to specialists, the majority of whom are men of wide reputation. The purpose of the section is the preparation of professors for secondary schools and the university faculties. Graduates receive the diploma of secondary education or a higher diploma of secondary and superior education.

University Cities in the War-Zone.—Two cities that have been brought into prominence by the events of the war are university-centers of unusual interest. The University of Louvain was among the oldest in Europe, founded in 1426 by John IV, Duke of Brabant, with the sanction of Pope Martin V. For many centuries it was the only institution of higher education in that dukedom. It was suppressed during the French Revolution and was not fully revived and re-organized until December, 1835. The institution was under the charge of the Episcopal Body of Belgium and remained until the present time one of the most important Roman Catholic universities on the Continent. Provision for modern sciences and technical instruction characterizes the recent history of this ancient foundation. A philological institute was founded in 1844 and about the same time the now famous school of Oriental languages was started. In 1864 a school of civil engineer-

ing, industry and mines was attached to the faculty of sciences and in the next decade a school for the training of agricultural engineers was added and the anatomic institute, now widely known as the Vésale Institute. More recently a practical school of brewing and a laboratory of bacteriology were added to the provision for technical professions and pursuits. The intimate relation between theoretic studies and the exact sciences has been emphasized by the founding of a chair of electro-technical instruction in the university proper. Last year, the university had a registration of 2,735 students, exceeding that of any other one of the three remaining universities of the kingdom.

The fortified town of Lemberg, recently taken by the forces of the Czar, is the seat of a Polish university which owes its existence to plans formulated by Empress Maria Theresa but not carried out until after her death. The university was completed under the present Emperor of Austria in 1894 by the establishment of a medical faculty. Like the sister university at Gracow, Lemberg possesses a valuable library, particularly rich in works pertaining to Polish history, law and literature. Since the destruction of the national organization of the Polish people, these two institutions, together with the University of Warsaw, have kept alive the sense of national unity and pride in the former achievements of the nation. The principal archives of the old Polish kingdom are at the University of Warsaw, which has, therefore, been the center of research in respect to a history which is becoming more and more a matter of universal interest.

A. T. S.

Book Notices

FOODS AND HOUSEHOLD MANAGEMENT. A textbook of the Household Arts. By Miss Helen Kinne and Miss Anna M. Cooley, B. S., both of Teachers College, Columbia University. Macmillan Company. 1914. Price $1.50.

In our educational system today emphasis is laid on the practical, and on that which may be directly related and applied to daily acts. There should not be a chasm between what we learn at school and what we do at home. And for this very reason this volume on Food and Household Management is a splendid textbook for classes in Domestic Science. The subjects discussed may be dealt with in the school and directly and helpfully applied in the home. It is, therefore, a book that will be a valuable asset in any home. It is so interestingly and practically arranged that it will appeal to almost any housewife or daughter. It contains a fund of information on those subjects of food and administration which have so much to do with the health and happiness of our homes.

HOUSEHOLD PHYSICS. By Alfred Butler, Head of Science Department, High School of Practical Arts, Boston. Whitcomb & Barrows. Price $1.30.

To present the subject of Physics so that it shall have a real meaning to the student and so that it may be applied to the actual phenomena of daily experience, is to make Physics a part of real life. This is exactly what Mr. Butler has done in his Household Physics. He lays the emphasis not on formulas and theories, but on practical applications of the laws of physics to what is going on right around us. It is not a book for the school alone. It is so practical and so simply arranged that it can be used in the home, by the housewife or the child, without instruction from a teacher. It leaves a great deal of room for thought and thus affords the opportunity for mental discipline. The book is a treasure for any one who desires to interpret everyday phenomena and understand the "whys" of various causes and effects.

THE JOYOUS BOOK OF SINGING GAMES. Collected and arranged with pianoforte accompaniments. The Macmillan Company. Price $1.00.

A song book along new lines and suited to many different occasions. There are appropriate songs for very young children and also for those of maturer years, in schools, in "Guilds of Play, Girls' Friendly Societies, Open Air Fetes and home and social gatherings. The volume is in line with the modern revival of play instruction and the establishment and steadily increasing use of play grounds as a part of the school system.

THE NATURAL HISTORY OF THE FARM. A guide to the practical study of the sources of our living, in wild nature. By James G. Needham, Professor of Limnology, General Biology and Nature Study in Cornell University. The Comstock Publishing Company. Price $1.50.

Most interestingly describes such things as the wild fruits and nuts of the farm, the farm stream and its fishes, the farm woodlot, the wild and domesticated animals, the wild flowers, the soil and the "lay of the land," the roads, the fences and other subjects too numerous to mention. It is divided into sections for the seasons, viz.—October to January; February to May; June to October, with timely suggestions for each period.

FIRST BOOK OF ZOOLOGY. By T. H. Burlend, M. A., B. Sc., Lecturer in Histology and Embryology in the University College of South Wales and Monmouthshire. The Macmillan Company. Price $.50.

A FIRST BOOK OF NATURE STUDY. By E. Stenhouse, B. Sc. (Lond.) Associate of the Royal College of London. The Macmillan Company. Price $.50.

Everychild's Series. HOW MAN CONQUERED NATURE. By Minnie J. Reynolds. Illustrations by Florence R. A. Wilde. The Macmillan Company. Price $.40.

In these books the teacher will find admirable material for beginning lessons in science. The subject matter is up to date and happily presented. These books are all good for supplementary work, though the first two are distinctly first text books in science.

THE THEORY AND PRACTICE OF ARGUMENTATION AND DEBATE. By Victor Aloni Ketcham, B. A., LL. B., Assistant Professor in the Ohio State University. The Macmillan Company. Price $1.25 net.

This book is a complete manual covering the subject very thoroughly. It will prove a satisfactory text-book for high school and college. The student who masters its teachings will find them clear in theory and practical in application to his needs.

AMERICAN LITERATURE. By John Calvin Metcalf, Litt. D., Professor of English in Richmond College. Author of English Literature. B. F. Johnson Publishing Company. Price $1.25.

A clear and systematic presentation of American literature, free from unimportant details. Southern literature is given its proper place as well as the writers of the middle and western states. Representative extracts accompany the discussions of personality, style, etc. The arrangement is chronological.

THE BUSINESS LETTER. By Ion E. Dwyer, Principal of Commercial Department, Hope Street High School, Providence, R. I., formerly Professor of Commerce in Robert College, Constantinople. Houghton Mifflin Company. Price $1..00 net.

A full, detailed treatment of this one particular in the study of commercial English,—which is, perhaps, justified by its vast importance from a business point of view.

CHATS IN THE ZOO. By Teresa Weimer, Primary Teacher, Franklin School, Kewaunee, Ill. and R. G. Jones, Superintendent of Schools, Rockford, Ill. Rand, McNally & Company. Price $.40.

A supplementary reader along popular lines. Almost every large city now has a "Zoo." Almost every child in such cities visits this institution. The volume in hand tells in an interesting way the facts about the animals and their uses to man, which every child should know. The illustrations are most interesting.

FIELD CROP PRODUCTION. A Text-Book for Elementary Courses in Schools and Brief Courses in Colleges. By George Livingston, Assistant Professor of Agronomy, Ohio State University. The Macmillan Company. Price $1.40.

A thorough presentation of the latest ideas, methods and results in agriculture as a study and as a vocation. The book is worthy to become a standard text-book in this steadily enlarging field of study.

Macmillan's Commercial Series. COMMERCIAL CORRESPONDENCE AND POSTAL INFORMATION. By Carl Lewis Altmaier, Director, Department of Commerce and Finance, Drexel Institute, Philadelphia. New and Revised Edition. The Macmillan Company. Price $.70.

BUSINESS ENGLISH. A practice book. By Rose Buhlig. Lake High School, Chicago. D. C. Heath & Company. Price $1.10.

Each of these volumes is a comprehensive, clear, well-arranged manual for high schools, commercial colleges and all students who are preparing for a business life. In each a strong emphasis is appropriately laid upon correspondence and upon salesmanship.

THE RURAL SCHOOL AND ITS METHODS AND MANAGEMENT. By Horace M. Culter, Professor of Rural School Administration, Kansas State Normal School, Emporia, Kansas, and Julia M. Stone, Teacher Model Rural School, Western Kansas State Normal School, Hays, Kansas. 365 pages. Illustrated. Price $1.10.

Students of the rural school problem will find here a very satisfactory consideration of the whole subject, by authors who have had a broad experience and who have intelligently availed themselves of the experience of others in reaching their conclusions.

A TEXT-BOOK OF ELEMENTARY CHEMISTRY. By Alexander Smith, Professor of Chemistry and Head of the Department of Chemistry in Columbia University. The Century Company. Price $1.25 Postpaid.

Distinctive features of this book are: the applications of chemistry in everyday life; the mode of treatment and the apportionment of space so that the special interests of the two sexes are kept in mind; the inclusion of two special, review chapters; the adaptation of the course, by judicious excision to the maturity or special aims of the majority of the class.

Cambridge Elementary Classics. SALAMIS is easy Attic Greek, with Introduction, Notes and Vocabulary. By G. M. Edwards, M. A., Fellow of Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

The Battle of Salamis, one of the great battles of history, is here presented in simplified Greek for pupils who have just began to read the language. There are several valuable illustrations.

AN ELEMENTARY LATIN GRAMMAR. By Arthur Sloman, M. A., formerly Master of the King's Scholars in Westminster School, Late Head Master of Birkenhead School, Hon Canon of Ely. Cambridge University Press.

A compact, clear, scholarly and satisfactory Latin grammar, giving the student all that is necessary to enable him to read and understand easy Latin.

QUANTITY AND ACCENT IN THE PRONUNCIATION OF LATIN. By F. W. Westaway. Cambridge University Press.

A scholarly study of accent and quantity which will set right many common, but unjustifiable pronunciations of Latin words.

A GROUP OF FAMOUS WOMEN. Stories of their lives. By Edith Horton. Illustrated. D. C. Heath & Company.

Joan of Arc, Lucretia Mott, Dorothea Dix, Harriet Beecher Stowe, Julia Ward Howe, Queen Victoria, Louisa M. Alcott, and many others are attractively presented. The book is admirable for supplenmentary reading. "History and biography go hand in hand," and nothing teaches like concrete living examples of ability, earnestness and enthusiasm.

Books Acknowledged

We acknowledge the receipt of the following books which we have not space to review in **Education:**

National Education Association of the U. S. **Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the Fifty-first Annual Meeting** held at Salt Lake City, Utah, July 5-11, 1913. Published by the Association, Secretary's Office, Ann Arbor, Mich.

Der Bibliothekar. With Notes, Vocabulary, Fragen, and Exercises. Edited by Frederick W. C. Lieder, Instructor in German in Harvard University. Ginn & Company. Price 45 cents.

Heath's Modern Language Series **Poèmes Et Chants De France.** Selected and edited with notes and vocabulary by W. M. Daniels, French Master in Westminster City School and Renè Travers, Professeur Au Lycèe de Versailles. D. C. Heath & Co. Price 50 cents.

On Rend L'Argent Par Francois Coppèe. Edited with notes and vocabulary by Philip Warner Harry, Ph. D., Assistant Professor of Romance Languages, University of Pittsburgh. Ginn & Company. Price 50 cents.

Merrill's German Texts. **Kindertränen.** Edited by Carolyn Kreykenbohm, Instructor in German in the High School, Mount Vernon, New York. 192 pages. Charles E. Merrill Co. Price 50 cents.

Heath's Modern Language Series. French's Materials for Sight Translation. English into German. D. C. Heath & Company. Price 15 cents.

Scherer and Dirk's Deutsche Lieder. By Peter Scherer, Supervisor of German, Indianapolis Public Schools, and Louis H. Dirks, Teacher of German, Shortridge High School, Indianapolis. Cloth, 8vo, 110 pages. American Book Company. Price 25 cents.

A Shorter Geometry by C. Godfrey, M. V. O., M. A., Headmaster of the Royal Naval College, Osborne; formerly Senior Mathematical Master at Winchester College; and A. W. Siddons, M. A., Late Fellow of Jesus College, Cambridge; Assistant Master at Harrow School. Part 1. First and Second Stages. Geometry for Beginners. Part 2. Third Stage. Books 1 and 2. Part 3. Third Stage. Book 3 The Circle. Part 4. Third Stage. Book 4 Similarity. Cambridge University Press. Price Tenpence.

The Autocrat of the Breakfast-Table. By Oliver Wendell Holmes. Edited with an introduction and notes by C. R. Rounds, Inspector of English, Wisconsin State Normal Schools. The Macmillan Company. Price 25 cents.

The Arden Shakespeare. **The Tragedy of Romeo and Juliet.** Edited by Robert Adger Law, Ph. D., Adjunct Professor of English. The University of Texas. D. C. Heath & Company. Price 25 cents.

Oral English. By Clara Beverly, Supervisor of English, Grammar Schools, Detroit, Mich. Book 1. A handbook for teachers. Book 2. For the pupils' use. Atkinson, Mentzer & Co. Price 35 cents each.

Longmans' English Classics. Shakespeare's **Julius Caesar.** Edited with notes and introduction. By George C. D. Odell, Ph. D., Professor of English, Columbia University. Longmans, Green & Company. Price $.25.

Longmans' English Classics. George Eliot's **Silas Marner.** Edited with notes and introduction by Robert Herrick, Professor of English in the University of Chicago. Longmans, Green & Company. Price 25 cents.

Longmans' English Classics. Edmund Burke's **Speech on Conciliation with America.** Edited with notes and introduction. By Albert S. Cook, Ph. D., L. H. D., Professor of the English Language and Literature in Yale University. Longmans, Green & Company. Price 25 cents.

Riverside Literature Series. **Selected English Letters.** Edited by Claude M. Fuess, Ph. D., Instructor in English, Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass. Houghton Mifflin Company.

Riverside Essays. Edited by Ada L. F. Snell, Associate Professor of English, Mount Holyoke College. **The American Mind and American Idealism.** By Bliss Perry, Professor of English Literature, Harvard University. **Studies in Nature and Literature.** By John Burroughs. **University Subjects.** By John Henry Newman. **Promoting Good Citizenship.** By James Bryce. Houghton Mifflin Company. Price 35 cents each.

Minimum College Requirements in English. For Study for the years 1914-1919. With Introduction, Notes and Suggestions for study. Houghton Mifflin Company. Price 75 cents.

New Entertainments. By Edith M. Burrows in **Fischer's Edition** of Plays for young people. No. 3667. **Dear Cyril.** Three-act comedy. No. 3664. **Their Lordships.** Two-act comedy. No. 3736. **Anti-Aunts.** Three-act comedy. J Fischer & Brother. Price 35 cents each, net.

At the Heart of Things. Forty-first annual report of the Board of Managers of the Swedenborg Publishing Association, 920 Nicollet Ave., Room 221, Minneapolis, Minn., for the year ending December 31, 1913.

What a Business Man Should Know About Printing. A desk book for ready reference. W. B. Conkey Company, Hammond, Ind.

The Cambridge Manuals of Science and Literature. **A Grammar of English Heraldry.** By W. H. St. John Hope, Litt. D., Hon. D. C. L. (Durham.) Cambridge: at the University Press. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 80 volumes, 40 cents, net, cloth; $1.00 in leather.

Readings in American History. Edited by James Alton James, Professor of History in Northwestern University. Charles Scribner's Sons.

A Uniform Marking System for College Professors. By Guy E. Snavely, Registrar Allegheny College. A paper read before the American Association of Collegiate Registrars, Salt Lake City, Utah, July 9, 1913.

A Hand Book. Containing Suggestion and Programs for Community Social Meetings at Rural School Houses. Prepared by L. J. Hanifan, State Supervisor of Rural Elementary Schools. Under the direction of M. P. Shawkey, State Superintendent, Charleston, W. Va. 1913.

Bulletin No. 40—1913. Bureau of Education. **Athletic Handbook** for the Philippine Public Schools. (Revised.) Manila Bureau of Printing. 1913.

Nixie Bunny in Workaday-Land. A reader of Occupation and Industry for the Second and Third Grades. By Joseph C. Sindelar. A companion volume to Nixie Bunny in Manners-Land, and the second book of the Nixie Bunnie Series. With 90 illustrations in black and five colors, and decorations for cover and end papers, by Helen G. Hodge. 144 large pages. Cloth binding, stamped in two colors. Beckley-Cardy Company, publishers. Price 40 cents. Postpaid. Gift Edition in box, 60 cents. Postpaid.

Bureau of American Ethnology. Bulletin 56. **Ethnozoology of the Tewa Indians.** By Junius Henderson and John Peabody Harrington. Government Printing Office. Washington.

Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 49-1913. **Industrial Fiber Plants of the Philippines.** A description of the chief industrial fiber plants of the Philippines, their distribution, method of preparation, and uses. By Theodore Muller. Manila Bureau of Printing. 1913.

Elementary Electrical Testing. Monograph 2. Joint Committee Series. National Education Association Edition. Contributed by the Technical Staff of the Weston Electrical Instrument Company, Newark, N. J.

The Life and Public Services of Andrew S. Draper. By Thomas E. Finnegan, M. A., Pd. D., LL. D., Assistant Commissioner for Elementary Education. An address delivered before the New York State Teachers Association at Syracuse, November 26, 1913. The University of the State of New York. Albany, 1914.

United States Bureau of Education. Bulletin, 1913, No. 48. Whole Number 559. **School Hygiene.** A report of the Fourth International Congress of School Hygiene, held at Buffalo, N. Y., August 25-30, 1913. By W. Carson Ryan, Jr. Washington Government Printing Office. 1913.

The National Association of Audubon Societies. Educational Leaflet No. 1, **The Nighthawk.** Educational Leaflet No. 2, **The Mourning Dove.** Educational Leaflet No. 3, **The Meadowlark.** Educational Leaflet No. 5, **The Flicker.** Educational Leaflet No. 10, **The Sparrow Hawk.** Educational Leaflet No. 11, **The Screech Owl.** Educational Leaflet No. 15, **Yellow-Billed Cuckoo.** Educational Leaflet No. 46, **The Robin.** Educational Leaflet No. 56, **The Ruby-Throated Hummingbird.**

The Socialized Conscience. By Joseph Herschel Coffin, Professor of Philosophy, Earlham College. Warwick & York. Price $1.25.

Theory of the Irreducible Cases of Equations and its applications in algebra, geometry and trigonometry. By Charles Edgar White, M. A., Professor of Mathematics in West Virginia, Wesleyan College. Part 2. Published by the author. Price 75 cents.

The Magic Chest. An easily staged musical play in one act for boys and girls. Written and adapted from the Greek legend of "Epimetheus and Pandora." By E. Elliot Stock. With incidental music composed by Ernest Brumleau, and three colored plates designed by M. M. Johnson. E. P. Dutton & Company. Price 90 cents. Net.

A Little Book of Well-Known Toys. By Jenness M. Braden. With pictures by Margaret Hittle. Rand, McNally & Company.

Furniture Design for Schools and Shops. By Fred D. Crawshaw, B. S., M. E., Professor of Manual Arts, University of Wisconsin. The Manual Arts Press. Price $1.00.

Periodical Notes

The **North American Review** for September offers a most striking and timely table of contents. The leading editorial—"Europe at Armageddon"—is the most graphic presentation that has thus far appeared of the horror that now envelops the world.

The September **St. Nicholas** is very much of a vacation number with an account of the fun of "Aquaplane Riding," as they try it on Lake George, by Dr. E. J. Morris; Billy Evans' discussion of "The Heroes of the World's Series and the 'Goats'"; more chapters of Grace Tabor's "Garden Making" and of "The Housekeeping Adventures of the Junior Blairs," and several stories of summer good times and adventures.

"Easily one-fifth of the Hebrews in the world are with us," says Professor Edward Alsworth Ross in his article on "The Hebrews of Eastern Europe in America" in the September **Century.** Their illiteracy is twenty-six per cent. They come from cities and settle in cities, half of them in New York.

The "College as Seen by Business Men" is presented in a new light by Henry S. Pritchett, in the September **Atlantic.** As an organization, say the business men, the college is expensive, uncritical of its own processes, and grows continually by accretion. Departments, studies, and new divisions are added; nothing is ever subtracted; the men it turns out are on the whole ill-trained, are able to do nothing well, as a class are not fond of work, and need in most cases a thorough breaking-in and additional discipline before they are available for serious occupations. The college, therefore, they say, is not only poorly organized and inordinately expensive, but unsuccessful in what it undertakes to do; and it makes no serious effort to remedy these obvious defects. Readers of **Education** will be interested in this spicy arraignment of the colleges, and after smiling over it will proceed to sacrifice whatever is necessary to give their children a college education in the belief that nothing else counts as much in the enrichment of life.